Disagreeing in Academic Written Discourse in the Discipline of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics

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I may not always remember those who were there in good times, but I will always remember those who were there for me in bad times.

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ABSTRACT

Disagreeing, although face-threatening, is an important but difficult aspect of academic writing. As such, disagreeing in, particularly, written academic discourse is a challenge for many students and novice writers, but one that must be embraced to arm them with skills and understandings to survive and thrive in academic settings. Existing studies (e.g. Pomerantz, 1984; Locher, 2004; Stadler, 2006) have made important contribution on the strategies and functions of disagreement in spoken contexts; however, to date only Hunston (1993) and Salager-Meyer (1999) have addressed disagreement in research articles. It is therefore necessary to conduct more data-based research to further understand how academics disagree with other named researchers and/or their work.

This study investigated how British professors typically expressed disagreement with named researchers in 16 TAL (Theoretical and Applied Linguistics) articles written in a non-quantitative (i.e. qualitative or a combination of qualitative and quantitative) framework and published in leading journals or books between 2000 and 2011. 11 interviews were also used in this study to explore the TAL authors' reasons for writing the disagreement moves and steps the way they did.

This study has reinforced Hunston's (1993) findings that disagreement occurs when there is a differential between the opposed claim and proposed claim, but the differential can be resolved by presenting the opposed claim negatively and the proposed claim positively. It has also reinforced Salager-Meyer's (1999) findings that indirect disagreement expressions are frequent in papers written after the 1930s. In addition, this study extends their findings by developing a theoretical and/or analytical framework to further explain how a disagreement instance is structured and expressed. Based on the results of text analysis, the 69 disagreement instances in the 16 TAL articles could first be classified into one to three disagreement moves: pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves. Next, using move analysis again, the pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves could be further classified into various disagreement steps. The core-disagreement move, for example, could be further classified into three broad categories of 'Explicit Disagreement Steps', 'Less-Explicit Disagreement Steps' and 'Implicit Disagreement

Steps'. Moreover, the text analysis results showed that the TAL authors frequently used the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence in the TAL articles. The interviews with the TAL authors suggested that this could be attributed to persuasion, reviewer power and convention. The text analysis results also found that the TAL authors preferred less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps. The eight reasons given for the TAL authors' choice of the less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps centred on showing evidence, implicitness, non-agonistic reasoning, appreciation, caution and persuasiveness, respect to opposed writers and how power operates in British culture. Furthermore, seven of the core-disagreement steps found in the TAL articles were found to be similar to some spoken disagreement strategies mentioned in previous studies. This might suggest that some core-disagreement steps were transferred from spoken English to the written academic discourse.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF DIAGRAMS

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of this study

To survive and thrive in postgraduate studies and academic careers requires disciplinary discourse competence in both speaking and writing. Academic writing is a means to succeed in postgraduate life, when a student has to write assignments, sit for exams or complete a dissertation or thesis. In the academic world of 'publish or perish', academic writing is also a necessity to pursue and succeed at an academic career, when a beginning academic needs to write grant proposals, publish articles or review papers. Of all the aspects of academic knowledge building which are mainly expressed through written discourse, disagreement is one of the most essential because knowledge is constructed on the basis that researchers frequently disagree with their predecessors in order to build on previous knowledge and develop theories, concepts or research ideas further. As Myers (1989) and Salager-Meyer (1999) point out, it is important to investigate how academics disagree in research articles because academic disagreement, although face-threatening, is important for the development, improvement or advancement of knowledge. Salager-Meyer (1999: 372), for example, notes the importance of professional or academic disagreement,

> "*Professional or academic disagreement—also referred to in terms of rival, contentious, incorrect, or conflicting knowledge claims—is a useful tool for the historian of a particular discipline and an interpersonal pragmatic feature central to the world of scholarship (i.e., to the scientific enterprise), at least in Western academia. Today's scientists indeed need to refer to previously published texts in order to present their claims and discuss scientific knowledge, even that with which they disagree*".

Academics usually agree to disagree in print, but within the boundaries of expected conventions and practices. Myers (1989) gives the example of James Watson and Francis Crick who won the 1962 Nobel Prize in Medicine for their discovery of the structure of DNA. Myers mentions that Watson gleefully mocked their rival researchers', Linus Pauling and Robert Corey's, article in private, informal conversations. In their famous 1953 *Nature* article, however, their

disagreement with Pauling and Corey was expressed less-explicitly. This can be seen in the opening of their 1953 *Nature* article, as the extract below shows:

> "*We wish to suggest a structure for the salt of deoxyribose nucleic acid (D.N.A.). This structure has novel features which are of considerable biological interest. A structure for nucleic acid has already been proposed by Pauling and Corey. They kindly made their manuscript available to us in advance of publication. Their model consists of three intertwined chains, with the phosphates near the fiber axis, and the bases on the outside. In our opinion, this structure is unsatisfactory for two reasons: (...)*" (Watson & Crick, 1953, cited in Myers, 1989).

The example above shows that even established academics like Watson and Crick have to observe academic discourse conventions to express disagreement in research articles. Moreover, disagreement is a common feature, even a distinguishing feature, of academic disciplines, as Swales (2004: 18) points out, "After all, most disciplines are loose aggregations of specialisms with diverse views about many fundamental matters—none more so than my own field of linguistics. And yet there remains something about these institutional structures that allows debate to take place within their borders; as Hyland pithily remarks, "Disciplines are the contexts in which disagreement can take place" (2000: 11)." It is thus important for students and novice writers to know how to disagree when disagreeing with named researchers in academic writing contexts.

Disagreeing, however, is a face-threatening act that is embedded in a complex web of linguistic and sociocultural norms and conventions, a web that students and novice writers of an academic community can easily become entangled in. Failing to disagree appropriately can result in misunderstanding, offense, negative evaluation and/or conflict. When I started this study, for example, I came across a few theoretical and applied linguists who declined my invitation for research participation because they had some unpleasant experience. Below is an extract from one particular potential participant who replied to decline my invitation:

> "*I must admit that, although your topic is an interesting one, I don't feel very comfortable about being included in your study. I have always strongly disapproved of with what I perceive to be typically male and confrontational approaches to scholarship. In fact I can only recollect being involved in one such openly adversarial exchange – largely in defensive*

mode – and I found it deeply upsetting. This might well make me a very good person to study. However, placing me centre stage in a discussion of this issue would only serve to increase my general discomfort. For this reason, I must politely decline your invitation."

This written refusal confirmed for me how sensitive disagreement could be and reminded me that it should be done with utmost care. This also strengthened my determination to investigate this face-threatening act of disagreeing which has a great potential to create conflict and cause offense.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Disagreeing is an important aspect of academic writing, but it is one of the most difficult and troublesome aspects of academic writing for less experienced writers, particularly students who speak English as a second or foreign language. Many students and novice writers are not sure how to disagree with other named researchers in their fields. This difficulty has been mentioned in the literature, particularly in the context of writer identity (e.g., Ivanic, 1998), voice (e.g., Street, 2009) and stance (Hyland, 2012). From my own experience, for example, when I wrote my MA dissertation and later rewrote it for publication, I did not know how to express disagreement with named established theoretical and applied linguists in the field. I did not have prior experience of disagreeing in academic writing. I asked for advice, but my non-native-English-speaking fellow MA students did not know too, while my native-English-speaking fellow MA students and tutors could not explain clearly to me how it was done. I also searched online and in the libraries for some tips on the related topic but found only one article (Hunston, 1993). Hunston (1993) suggests a binary division of 'Opposed Claim' and 'Proposed Claim' (see Section 2.4.2 for detail). However, this suggestion was more suitable if I had research findings which contradicted with the opposed writer's findings. In the end I chose not to express any disagreement in my MA dissertation and my first research paper. However, I am not the only one who has experienced this difficulty because disagreeing is a particularly daunting and challenging undertaking as students and novice writers struggle to negotiate an identity (Ivanic, 1998), construct an authorial voice (Street, 2009) or take on a stance (Hyland, 2012). How to disagree in academic writing remains implicit knowledge, although many tutors treat it as if it were a transparent element in the business of teaching and learning the subject/discipline. This

can lead to anxiety on the part of students who see disagreement as important but are not sure how to express disagreement appropriately in academic writing.

To date, research on disagreement has focused mainly on spoken contexts (Pomerantz, 1984; Pearson, 1986; LoCastro, 1986; Sacks, 1987; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kakava, 1993l; Kuo, 1994; Holtgraves, 1997; Myers, 1998; Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998; Rees-Miller, 2000; Scott, 2002; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Locher, 2004; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006) which is not directly related to disagreement in written contexts. Although spoken disagreement studies in spoken contexts provide a tool to help with a detailed text analysis by accounting for some disagreement strategies to some extent, they are not sufficient to provide a full explanation of disagreement in written contexts. The biggest difference between disagreement in spoken and written contexts is that the writers have to be much more careful with disagreement in written contexts because what is written may be published and will then be down in black and white.

Some progress has been made towards understanding academic disagreement in research articles, particularly in the work of Hunston (1993) and Salager-Meyer (1999) which are the most relevant to this study. Salager-Meyer's quantitative study shows the trend of disagreement in medical journal articles (see Section 2.4.2 for detail); however, it does not specify how disagreement is expressed. Hunston's (1993) model points out that one way to disagree in research articles is through 'Differential of Status' and 'Modification of Status' when two researchers have results that contradict each other (see Section 2.4.2 for detail); nonetheless, one cannot help but wonder if there are other ways to disagree in research articles which have not been described. In view of the importance and risks of disagreement in academic writing, it is of interest to continue this work to extend previous description of disagreement in research articles and to investigate what factors may influence how disagreement is expressed.

1.3 Purpose of this study

It is the purpose of this study to contribute a model for analysing and describing disagreement moves and steps in research articles written by experienced writers or established academics in my own discipline, Theoretical and Applied Linguistics (henceforth referred to as 'TAL articles' and 'TAL authors'). The TAL authors' experience of writing those TAL disagreements will also

be explored through interviews. In brief, a detailed text analysis will be conducted, the text analysis will then be complemented and triangulated with interview data. (The results of text analysis will be reported in Chapter 5 and the results of interviews in Chapter 6.) The findings may be of interest and value to students, novice writers, EAP material writers, EAP teachers, dissertation supervisors and thesis supervisors in this discipline to further understand how disagreement is expressed in the TAL articles and to write relevant disagreement which meet the expectations of the disciplinary community.

1.4 Research questions

In order to develop the research base, this study is designed with the following two objectives in mind: (1) how the TAL disagreement is written, which will be investigated through move analysis, and (2) why the TAL disagreement is written the way it is, which will be investigated through the lens of academic literacies. Hence, this study aims to answer two overarching research questions as follows:

1) How is disagreement with named researchers expressed typically in TAL articles?
2) Why do TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do?

1.5 Overview of the research process

This study comprises a pilot study and a main study. In the pilot study, text analysis was carried out on 11 TAL articles, and 11 face-to-face interviews were undertaken. The pilot study assisted in refining the research questions, developing an analytical framework, and fine-tuning the questions which would be asked in the interviews. In the main study, 16 TAL articles and 11 interviews were used (see Section 4.3.1 and Section 4.4.2). (The pilot study is reported in Section 4.2. The results of the text analysis in the main study are reported in Chapter 5 and the results of the interview data in the main study in Chapter 6.)

1.6 Outline of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1, this chapter, describes the context, defines the research gap, explains the purpose, states the research questions of this study, outlines the research process and organisation of this thesis. Following this brief introductory chapter, Chapter 2 will provide a review of the relevant literature on disagreement studies which have

influenced and guided this study. It will bring together the literature findings and indicate research gaps that this study will address. Chapter 3 will focus on the theoretical background to the methodology employed in this study to investigate TAL disagreement. It will draw on the relevant research done in genre analysis and academic literacies to develop the approaches to analyzing TAL disagreement instances and interpreting interview data. Chapter 4 will describe the pilot study upon which the main study is based. The ways in which the methods and procedures proved successful in the pilot study will be discussed, as well as changes that were instituted due to flaws in the study design and implementation. It will also explain the research methods, data collection process, ethics approval, and data analysis procedures in the main study. Chapter 5 will report and discuss the results of text analysis. It will describe in detail a model of TAL disagreement in terms of disagreement moves and steps. Chapter 6 will report and discuss the results of the interviews. It will shed light on reasons which influence how disagreement is expressed, as revealed by the interviews. Finally, Chapter 7, the concluding chapter, will summarise the findings of this study, discuss the implications of those findings, acknowledge some limitations of this study and offer suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

ARGUMENT, AGONISM AND DISAGREEMENT STUDIES

2.1 Chapter introduction

This study looks at a phenomenon which involves mentioning another researcher by name and either stating or implying that a TAL author disagrees with the named researcher's work. This phenomenon has been studied from a variety of perspectives. It is relevant to a number of studies for academic text such as those focusing on citations (Thompson & Tribble, 2001; Harwood, 2008a, 2008b), and engagement (Martin & White, 2003). This phenomenon has also been referred to in different terms in the literature, more pertinently '*disagreement*', '*argument/argumentation*' or '*agonism*'. This chapter thus reviews studies which use the terms '*disagreement*', '*argument*/*argumentation*' and '*agonism*' to find out what has been and has not been published about the phenomenon. After literature review, the term '*disagreement*' is chosen because it best reflects the phenomenon found in this study.

The following sections will focus on studies which discuss about '*argument*/*argumentation*', '*agonism*' and '*disagreement*', given its relevance to this study.

2.2 Argument and argumentation

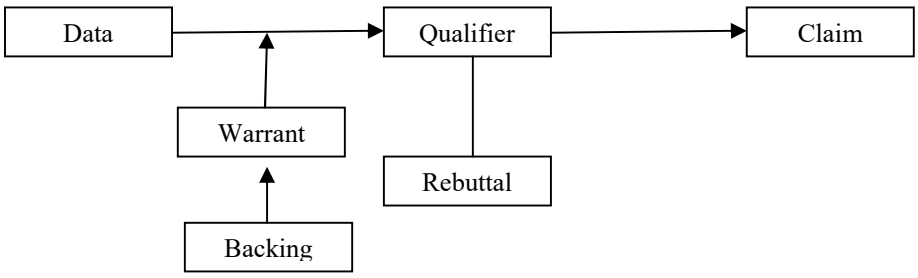
Studies of argument/argumentation (for example, Thompson, 1993, Toulmin, 2003; Andrews, 2010) focus on how to make a valid argument. This section will discuss three aspects of argument studies which are relevant to this study; namely, rebuttal in the Toulmin Model, discipline-specific argumentation and making explicit the disciplinary knowledge of argument.

2.2.1 Toulmin's Rebuttal

Toulmin's (2003) argument/argumentation is part of the philosophical field of logic but it has worked its way into linguistics. Toulmin is concerned with how to construct a valid argument and how to distinguish a valid from a non-valid argument. In the Toulmin Model, a valid argument contains six inter-related components; namely, claim, data, warrant, backing, qualifier and rebuttal. As Diagram 1 shows, the Toulmin argumentation can be diagrammed as a claim

established, more or less, on the basis of data supported by a warrant, with backing, and a possible rebuttal. A claim is the proposition or assertion an arguer wants another to accept. Data is the evidence an arguer presents to support the claim. Warrants are chains of reasoning that connects the data to the claim. Warrants explain why the data support the claim. Backing is the set of values, assumptions, mores, conventions, ideologies or theories that back up the warrant. Mediating between the claim and data is the possibility of a qualifier, to reflect an arguer's degree of force or certainty concerning the claim. Furthermore, a rebuttal may be included to provide answer or defence to pre-empt counter-arguments or objections. The counter-arguments can come in various forms, as added by Andrews (2010), such as a direct challenge to the claim, the provision of new evidence or a challenge to the nature of the data presented so far, a questioning of the connections made between data and claim in the form of an attack on the warrant, and a more fundamental challenge to the backing (or values, assumptions, mores, conventions and ideologies) that have underpinned the whole edifice of the argument in question. It can be noticed, from Diagram 1, that the direction of the arrows in the Toulmin Model are all toward the substantiation of the claim. The various components of the model are there to support the claim and to evaluate its soundness. Hence, the Toulmin Model can be used to evaluate how effectively the six inter-related components participate in the overall whole argument. Andrews (2007, 2010) points out that the Toulmin Model can be used for generating arguments although it was not originally intended for that use because it is more suited to testing the strength of existing arguments than to generating new ones.

Diagram 1: Toulmin Model



Hence, there is a value judgment attached to the Toulmin Model as it makes a distinction between a valid argument and an invalid argument. As Andrews (2007, 2010) points out, the main function of the Toulmin Model is evaluating the soundness of an argument. Thompson's (1993) study makes use of the Toulmin's (1958) model of argumentation to analyse the results

section of 36 research articles from JBC (*Journal of Biological Chemistry*) and PNAS (*Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*). His results show that the Toulmin Model can be used to evaluate the soundness of an argument. However, it is important to point out here that this study describes how disagreement is expressed, but does not make any value judgments about how the disagreement is expressed.

The relevance of Toulmin's argument to this study is that one of the approaches to the genre of research article can be described in terms of Toulmin's argument. Hence, one approach to the notion of 'disagreement' in this study is the concept of Toulmin's rebuttal. In other words, Toulmin's rebuttal can be described in terms of moves and steps. However, Toulmin's Model focuses centrally on claim, data, warrant and backing. For Toulmin's Model, rebuttal (or disagreement) is only a minor part of a larger structure of a valid argument. Toulmin (2003) does not expand much on rebuttal, stating only that if a claim is challenged, data should be produced or warrant should be brought forward to rebut a counter-argument. However, he notes the importance of rebuttal as counter-arguments may be capable of defeating a warranted claim. Hence, this study intends to contribute to the understanding of how to rebut a counter-argument or describe rebuttal in terms of moves and steps.

2.2.2 Discipline-specific argumentation

In addition to rebuttal, another relevant aspect is discipline-specific argumentation. This is consistent with the findings from recent genre studies and academic literacies about discipline-specific variations (see Section 3.2.3) and discipline-specific ways of writing knowledge (see Section 3.3.2), respectively. This is relevant to this study as this study takes a discipline-specific approach to disagreement, or 'rebuttal' in Toulmin's term. In a pilot study undertaken at universities in the United States and the United Kingdom, Andrews et. al. (2006, cited in Andrews, 2010) has drawn on the Toulmin Model and finds discipline-specific argumentation skills in three disciplines: history, biology and electrical engineering/electronics. The results suggest that differences among institutions, disciplines and individual lecturers are significant when it comes to argumentational assumptions and practices. He also ties the differences in argumentational approach among disciplines to epistemological variation in what constitutes knowledge and how that knowledge is framed in the various disciplines. If translated in

Toulminian terms, as Andrews (2010) points out, the backing and warrants which connect claims (propositions) and data (evidence) vary from discipline to discipline. The role of argumentation is central to history, for example. On the other hand, according to Andrews (2010), argumentation is largely hidden at undergraduate level in biology and electrical engineering. Even though it is generally accepted that argument does play a significant role in biology and electrical engineering, argumentation usually comes into play in the latter stages of the undergraduate years.

2.2.3 Making explicit disciplinary knowledge of argument

A further relevant aspect is the urge to make explicit the discipline-specific knowledge of argument and argumentation in higher education. Argument and argumentation are valued highly in higher education, as Andrews (2010) emphasizes, because advancement in knowledge often comes via argument and students are expected to be able to argue rationally both within their courses and in the wider world. Andrews' (2010) study suggests that students in all three disciplines are aware of the importance of argument, with history students being made more aware of its centrality to the discipline than biology or electrical engineering students. However, argumentation remains an implicit notion so students often operate from their own assumptions about what it means to argue well in a discussion or essay (Andrews, 2007, 2010). Andrews (2010) also points out that there is often a mismatch between the way academics and students see argument and how it applies to particular disciplines. Moreover, some courses provide only surface guidance, while others see argument as outside their field of responsibility. Furthermore, little attention has been paid to argument and argumentation in each discipline which has its own distinctive ways of constructing and validating arguments. Students thus express the need for more explicit instruction in or discussion of disciplinary knowledge of argumentation from a lecturer. This echoes the suggestion of academic literacies (see Section 3.3.2) in making explicit the discipline-specific and implicit epistemological issue of academic argument and structure (Lea & Street, 1998, 1999, 2006; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Street, 2009), and also the desire of this study to make explicit how disagreement (or rebuttal in Toulmin's term) is expressed in TAL articles.

2.3 Agonism

In contrast to Toulmin's constructive or valid argument, agonism focuses centrally on the notion of destructive argument. Tannen (2000, 2002) and Badger (2004, 2006) focus specifically on articles which they describe as agonistic where the whole purpose of the articles is to enact a conflict. This section will discuss some common elements and destructive consequence of agonism, followed by difference between agonism and disagreement.

2.3.1 Common elements and destructive consequences of agonism

Badger (2004, 2006) points out that argument plays an important role in encouraging critical and reflective ways of thinking, examining the validity or utility of ideas, and producing of new knowledge. However, Tannen (2000, 2002) and Badger (2004, 2006) also point out that there is one particular kind of argument—agonism—which has destructive consequences to the academic process. Tannen defines agonism as 'ritualised opposition' (2000: B7) or 'ritualised adversativeness' (2002: 1652). She likens it to a formal, staged debate in which two parties take opposing positions on an issue with the goal not to better understand the other's position but to win the debate.

Tannen (2000, 2002) describes some common elements of agonism among academics. One common element of agonism is attacking others in snide, scornful, insulting, contemptuous and/or sarcastic tones. Another is being eager to find faults and weaknesses. Yet another is making others wrong by over-simplifying, distorting or misrepresenting others' positions, searching for some weakest points to make a generally reasonable work appear less so, and ignoring facts that support the other scholar's views. One further common element is using the 'Adversary Paradigm' where adversaries are trying to defend their own views against counter-arguments and produce counter-arguments to opposing views. The aim is to reduce the other scholar to an object of attack and to show that the other scholar is wrong.

Tannen (2000, 2002) also talks about many destructive consequences of academic agonism. One ideological assumption underlying agonism is that negative criticism reveals more thought than highlighting others' contributions. The cumulative effect is that many scholars feel vulnerable and defensive, and thus less willing to suggest new ideas and offer new perspectives.

Second, the warring-camps dichotomy associated with agonism implies that only one framework can apply. Agonism hence discourages exploring complexity, drawing insights from disparate work, seeking connections to other work, synthesising various views, and integrating ideas. As a result, agonism results in less knowledge and insight rather than more. Third, agonism wastes scholars' time and talent. Critics expend energy looking for faults in others' work that could better be spent building on it or developing their own work in new directions. At the same time, those who are the object of agonistic attack are forced to expend energy dispelling misrepresentations of their work that could better be spent doing new creative work or incorporating the insights of genuine critics. Another destructive consequence is that agonism can result in the loss of creative work as many scholars are discouraged from presenting or publishing their work. Many who have no taste for agonism are dissuaded from entering the field or withdrawing from the profession. Forth, agonism involves provocation and retaliation. It produces an atmosphere of animosity which poisons relations between scholars. Fifth, agonism assumes that the personal has no place in scholarship. Hence, agonism makes attacking other's work acceptable because the work is separable from the person who creates it. In this way, agonism precludes respect for other scholars. Yet another destructive consequence is that agonism makes it difficult for public policy to be influenced by academic research. Policy-makers who come across relevant academic research immediately encounter opposing research which makes it difficult for policy-makers to gauge the accuracy of published research. Lastly, nasty words of agonism rankle.

Badger (2004, 2006) uses Tannen's (2002) definition of agonism and identifies clear examples of agonistic articles or "instances of institutionalized argument, or agonism" (2006: 1444). He points out that several journals now often include series of ritualised adversative articles, 'agonistic articles' or 'provocative articles'. He gave three examples where he collected his data from: *ELTJ* (*English Language Teaching Journal*), *Lingua*, and *TESOL* (*Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*) *Quarterly*. For example, *Lingua*, Badger (2004: 12; 2006: 1443) points out, has a section devoted to provocative articles under the general heading of 'Lingua Franca':

> "*Lingua is introducing a series of provocative articles under the general heading of Lingua Franca. We invite essays of about 2000 words on a favourite topic, voicing strong opinions*

supported by arguments in an entertaining way…Where someone is an obvious target of a particular contribution, he or she will be sent a copy and invited to respond, probably in the same issue of the journal."

Another example given by Badger (2004: 12; 2006: 1443) is *ELTJ* which has a section named 'Forum' where the editors invite similar kind of article:

"*In this section we present contrasting views on a topic of current interest. The first article is one that has been reviewed by the Editorial Advisory Panel and accepted for publication; the second is a commissioned response, to which the author of the original article is invited to make a brief reply.*"

Following Tannen (2002), Badger (2006) uses a two-dimensional model of argument to describe an agonistic argument and to find out what it looks like in 12 ritualised adversative articles, or agonistic articles, from the journals of *Lingua*, *ELTJ* and *TESOL Quarterly*. His two-dimensional model of argument is based on Tannen's (2002) division of scientific knowledge and the human community or Ceccarelli's (2001, cited in Badger, 2006) division of cognitive content and social context. One dimension—scientific knowledge or cognitive content—ranges from construction to destruction. The other dimension—the human community or social context—ranges from antagonism to neutrality. On one dimension, an agonistic argument makes little or no contribution to the construction of new knowledge or cognitive content of the field. On the other dimension, an agonistic argument contains explicit negative references which may cause damage to the social context or relationship with the discourse community. Using the keywords facility in *Wordsmith Tools*, Badger (2006) found high frequency of social-context keywords in the agonistic articles. The keywords which indicate social context are names of the arguees as the subject of a clause and their respective personal pronouns. Moreover, the way in which these arguees is referred to is largely negative. These explicit negative references are usually delexical verb groups paired with noun phrases which are used to make negative comments; for example, "*does not seriously dispute*", "*would have us believe*" and "*seem to hold a lingering, but unarticulated, assumption*". Hence, Badger (2006) comments that it is hard to see these explicit negative references as contributing to the construction of new knowledge. The

explicit negative references may also cause damage to the relations between members of the discourse community. Some of Badger's examples of agonistic argument are as follows:

> "*Throughout their article, Borsley and Ingham wrongly identify applied linguistics with text and corpus analysis.*"

> "*It seems to us that he is conspicuously unsuccessful in this just as he is in his attempt to challenge our assessment of the current relation between linguistic and applied linguistics.*"

Tannen (2000, 2002) says it would be unrealistic, even though it is desirable, to call for an end to agonism. Instead, she calls for a toning-down of agonism in academic discourse and advocates several alternatives. The first alternative is a complementary exercise of 'doubting game' (to "*sniff out faults*") and 'believing game' (to "*sniff out strengths*) which will lead to more understanding, insight and knowledge. The second alternative is to restore the person of the scholar to scholarship by increasing the use of the first-person pronoun *I* and personal experience in service of intellectual argumentation and decreasing the use of passive voice and nominalisations. The third alternative is replacing the metaphors of war or boxing match, in which one must win while the other must lose—with new metaphors to conceptualise intellectual interchange such as barn-raising or cooking. Badger (2006) also suggests the use of neutral terms when, for example, discussing what others say; for example, using "*refer*" or "*ask*", instead of "*provides no serious evidence*" and "*appears to believe*".

2.3.2 Agonism versus disagreement

Tannen (2000, 2002) seems to make a value judgment as she attempts to distinguish agonism from disagreement. In differentiating between agonism and disagreement, Tannen excludes disagreement from the definition of agonism, as she states:

> "*Agonism does not refer to* ***disagreement*** [my emphasis]*, conflict, or vigorous dispute*" (Tannen, 2000: B7)

> "*I use the term to refer not to conflict,* ***disagreement*** [my emphasis]*, or disputes per se, but rather to ritualised adversativeness*" (Tannen, 2002: 1652).

"*I have not claimed that no one should* ***disagree*** [my emphasis] *or critique in the negative sense*" (Tannen, 2002: 1666).

Tannen (2002) also sees disagreement as positive argument. She points out that the open expression of disagreement can hone ideas and correct mistakes, whereas agonism squelches the open expression of disagreement by making many afraid to speak up for what they believe for fear of becoming the object of agonistic attack. She also encourages disagreement, "scholar must feel free to voice disagreement when they encounter opinions or findings they believe are wrong, misguided, or dangerous" (2002: 1666-1667). However, Tannen (2002) also acknowledges that the distinction between agonism and disagreement is not completely clear. Nonetheless, Tannen's (2000, 2002) and Badger's (2004, 2006) discussion and differentiation of argument, agonism and disagreement are helpful in determining the choice of 'disagreement' as the most appropriate name to reflect the phenomenon found in the TAL instances in this study.

It seems that Tannen (2000, 2002) and Badger (2004, 2006) make a moral judgment about a particular kind of article whose sole purpose is to enact a conflict. However, this study does not take a moral stance towards how disagreement is expressed in TAL disagreement instances. The TAL disagreement instances in this study are considered part of argument taken from non-agonistic articles.

2.4 Disagreement

Toulmin (2003) regards rebuttal as an essential part of the argumentation process. Tannen (2000, 2002) and Badger (2004, 2006) regard agonism as detrimental to the academic process. However, studies which have talked more specifically about disagreement simply describe disagreement without taking a moral perspective. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the term 'disagreement' is chosen for this study. Hence, studies which have talked more specifically about disagreement from a huge range of perspectives such as conversation analysis (Pomerantz, 1984; Pearson, 1986; Sacks, 1987; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kakava, 1993; Myers, 1998; Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998; Scott, 2002; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Cheng & Warren, 2005), speech act theory (LoCastro, 1986; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Stadler, 2006), politeness theory (Myers, 1989; Kuo, 1994; Holtgraves, 1997; Rees-Miller, 2000; Locher, 2004), and written discourse analysis (Mulkay, 1985; Hunston, 1993; Baym, 1996; Salager-Meyer, 1999) are

reviewed to contribute relevant background information to the research questions posed in Chapter 1. This section will start with a review of definitions of disagreement, followed by previous disagreement studies and disagreement strategies.

2.4.1 A review of definitions of disagreement

What is clear from a review of the literature is that disagreement is either not being defined, or it is defined ad hoc. Perhaps because disagreement is a fairly common term in ordinary conversation, it has not been given a technical definition in some academic studies of disagreement; for example, Pomerantz, 1984; LoCastro, 1986; Pearson, 1986; Sacks, 1987; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kuo, 1994; Holtgraves, 1997; Muntigle & Turnbull, 1998; Myers, 1998; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003 (see Table 1). On the other hand, it is defined in some academic studies of disagreement the way the researchers have recognised it in the data they are investigating; for example, Mulkay, 1985; Hunston, 1993; Baym, 1996; Salager-Meyer, 1999; Scott, 2002; Rees-Miller, 2000; Locher, 2004; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006 (see Table 1). As these researchers come from different fields, 'disagreement' is defined in different ways. However, there are some common ground in the definitions given, such as 'prior claim' (Mulkay, 1985; Baym, 1996; Rees-Miller, 2000; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006), 'conflict' (Hunston, 1993; Salager-Meyer, 1999; Locher, 2004), 'incompatible' (Baym, 1996; Locher, 2004) and 'opposition' (Scott, 2002; Stadler, 2006).

Table 1: Definitions of disagreement in previous studies

Pomerantz, 1984	(Nil)
Mulkay, 1985	Disagreement is any response which I judged to be a rejection, criticism, or modification of some prior claim or assessment (p.213).
LoCastro, 1986	(Nil)
Pearson, 1986	(Nil)
Sacks, 1987	(Nil)
Beebe & Takahashi, 1989	(Nil)
Greatbatch, 1992	(Nil)
Kotthoff, 1993	(Nil)
Hunston, 1993	Professional or academic conflict or disagreement is the writer's knowledge claims are presented as being in conflict with another researcher's knowledge claims (p.116).
Kakava, 1993	(Nil)
Kuo, 1994	(Nil)
Baym, 1996	Disagreements were defined as those posts that were explicitly responsive to other messages and took positions incompatible with the prior messages. Disagreements were not necessarily directly contradictory, but stated a position that could not logically be held if one held the prior position (p.325).
Holtgraves, 1997	(Nil)

Muntigle & Turnbull, 1998	(Nil)
Salager-Meyer, 1999	Professional or academic disagreement is also referred to in terms of rival, contentious, incorrect, or conflicting knowledge claims (p.372).
Myers, 1998	(Nil)
Rees-Miller, 2000	Disagreement is defined as a Speaker *S* disagrees when s/he considers untrue some Proposition *P* uttered or presumed to be espoused by an Addressee *A* and reacts with an utterance the propositional content or implicature of which is *Not P* (p.1088).
Scott, 2002	A clear and thorough definition of disagreements is probably not necessary, but 4 basic components should be considered in defining disagreements: (a) the idea of opposition; (b) varying levels of intensity; (c) the amount of time invested; (d) opposition needs to be perceived as real by interactants (1998, pp.15-23).
Holmes & Stubbe, 2003	(Nil)
Locher, 2004	Disagreement is likely to involve the exercise of power, because it entails a "conflict" and therefore also a "clash of interest". Waldron and Applegate (1994: 4) define verbal disagreement as "a form of conflict, because verbal disagreements are taxing communication events, characterised by incompatible goals, negotiation, and the need to coordinate self and other actions" (pp.93-94).
Cheng & Warren, 2005	In this chapter, we adopt the notion of 'dispreferred' to define acts of disagreement by speakers, whereby it is understood to mean that the speaker expressing disagreement is in some way saying something which is contrary, or may be interpreted to be contrary, to a stated position of a previous speaker in the discourse (p.243).
Stadler, 2006	Disagreement shall be defined as an utterance that qualifies, questions or opposes a prior utterance (p.16).

Nonetheless, as none of these definitions exactly fit what have been found in the TAL articles, a working definition of disagreement has been developed for this study. As it is used in this research context, the act of disagreeing occurs when TAL authors wholly or partially, by themselves or through agreement with a third party, reject, contradict, counterclaim, problematize, question, disprove and/or dissociate from the research (which includes findings, methodology, framework, argument, criticism, belief, stance, concept, notion, definition, interpretation, paradigm, perspective, opinion and/or position) of the named researchers. This definition is in line with the analysis of the TAL disagreement instances in this study (see Section 5.2.1 for detail).

2.4.2 A review of previous disagreement studies

The aims of this study are to investigate how TAL authors typically express disagreement with named researchers in TAL articles and why they express the disagreement the way they do. For these aims, the literature is reviewed to learn which theories and methods have been used to investigate disagreement strategies and functions in previous disagreement studies, and with what results.

It is found, following the literature review, that the previous disagreement studies are mostly of spoken, rather than written, data, as Diagram 2 shows (or see Appendix 1 for detail). These previous disagreement studies of spoken data are undertaken in different fields of research, such as conversation analysis (Pomerantz, 1984; Pearson, 1986; Sacks, 1987; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kakava, 1993; Myers, 1998; Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998; Scott, 2002; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Cheng & Warren, 2005), speech act theory (LoCastro, 1986; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Stadler, 2006), and Brown & Levinson's (1987) face-saving politeness theory (Kuo, 1994; Holtgraves, 1997; Rees-Miller, 2000; Locher, 2004). On the other hand, only a few previous disagreement studies of written data (Mulkay, 1985; Myers, 1989; Hunston, 1993; Baym, 1996; Salager-Meyer, 1999) have been found in the literature review. Appendix 1 summarises 23 disagreement studies which are relevant to this study with regard to their contexts, fields of study, analytical frameworks, research methods and foci. Diagram 2 below is the visual representation of the contexts, fields of study, and analytical frameworks where the previous disagreement studies are based.

Diagram 2: Contexts, fields of research and analytical frameworks in previous disagreement studies

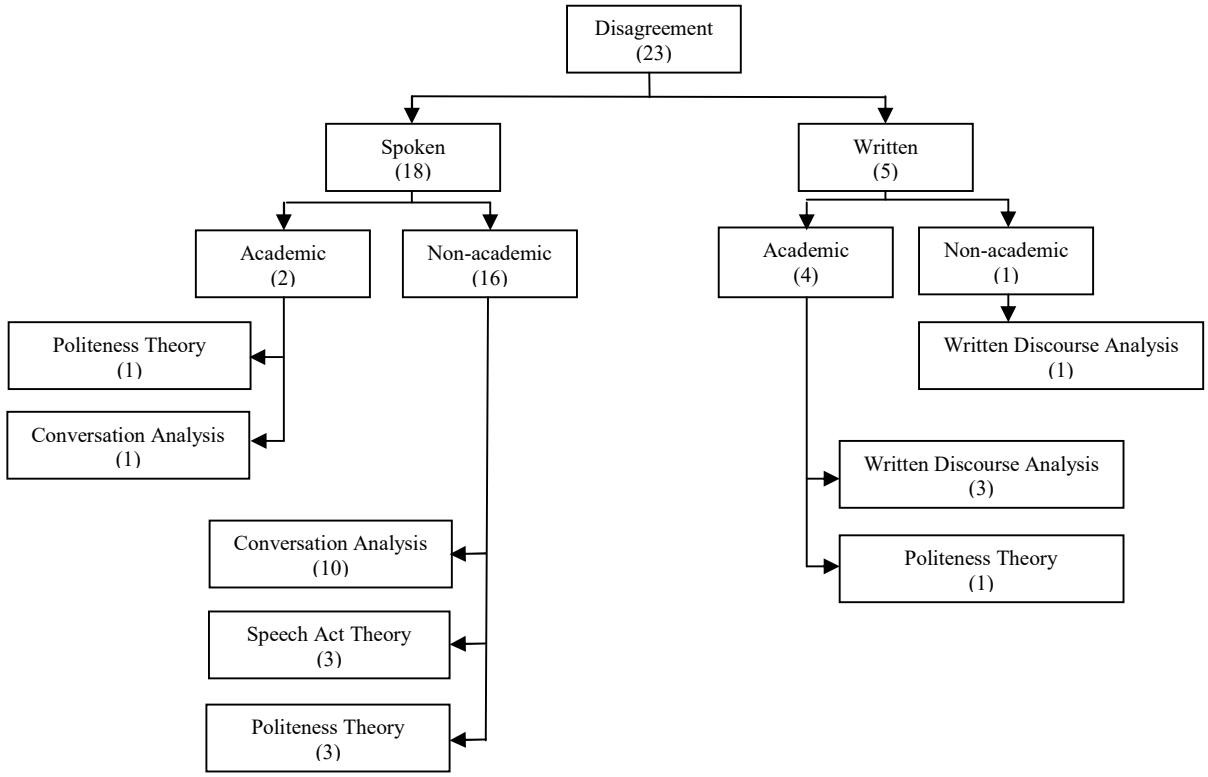


Diagram 2 shows that there have been very few disagreement studies of written data. Moreover, as Appendix 1 shows, none of them prescribes moves and steps. Mulkay (1985) analyses 80 letters by 13 biochemists from March 1974 to December 1975. Myers (1989) analyses the use of Brown & Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies to make claims and denials of claims in 60 Molecular Biology research articles and a corpus of readers' comments and writers' revisions. Hunston (1993) examines six research articles, including two articles in Biochemistry, two in Sociolinguistics and two in History. Mulkay (1985), Myers (1989) and Hunston (1993) use purely text analysis. Baym (1996) studies a Usenet discussion of one storyline on a soap opera, *All My Children*, posted on rec.arts.tv.soaps (r.a.t.s) in 1992. She uses text analysis, interviews, open-ended survey and intercoder check. Salager-Meyer (1999) investigates 90 medical journal articles published between 1810 and 1995. She uses corpus analysis and specialist informants. However, only Hunston (1993) and Salager-Meyer (1999) focus on disagreement in research articles and are therefore of particular relevance to this study.

Hunston (1993: 116) focuses on conflicting knowledge claims between 'Opposed Claim' ("the knowledge claim made by opposing writers") and 'Proposed Claim' ("the knowledge claim made by the writer under discussion"). She provides two options to present an academic conflict. One option is to indicate a knowledge gap in Opposed Claim and use Proposed Claim to fill the knowledge gap. Another option is to indicate a lack of correct knowledge in Opposed Claim and use Proposed Claim to correct the erroneous Opposed Claim. Hunston also offers two common strategies to present Opposed Claim and Proposed Claim differentially; namely, 'Differentials in Status' and 'Modification of Status'. The first strategy is to use reporting verbs (for example, "Opposed Writer *argued…*" versus "Proposed Writer's Study *indicate…*") and/or anaphoric noun (for example, "Opposed Writer's *claims*" versus "Proposed Writer's *facts*") to create a differential in the status of Opposed Claim and Proposed Claim. The second strategy is to modify the status of Opposed Claim and Proposed Claim by using a named researcher (implicating subjectivity) as the source of Opposed Claim while using a non-human entity, usually research results (implicating objectivity), as the source of Proposed Claim. In other words, Opposed Claim is presented as contingent upon the words of a named researcher while Proposed Claim is presented as contingent upon inscriptions (for example, graphs and tables). However, the conflict between Opposed Claim and Proposed Claim can be resolved by

presenting Opposed Claim in a negative light (i.e. Opposed Claim was probably wrong) and presenting Proposed Claim in a positive light (i.e. Proposed Claim was probably right). Hunston's findings are found to be helpful in understanding in-depth how Opposed Claim is presented as being in conflict with Proposed Claim. Hence, this study could build upon the foundation of Hunston's work to describe further the internal structure of a disagreement instance. Moreover, as Salager-Meyer (1999) points out, "Nonetheless, aware of the rather reduced size of her corpus (6 papers only), Hunston herself remarked that (1993:133) "further study is clearly necessary, however, as many of the knowledge claims made in this paper require validation from data of other kinds". This study would therefore like to take the investigation further by doing similar research but with a larger sample and different methods (see Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 for more detail).

Following Hunston (1993), Salager-Meyer (1999) examines from a diachronic perspective the evolution of the linguistic or rhetorical strategies used to express academic conflict in a corpus of 90 randomly chosen articles published in 34 American and British generalist medical journals between 1810 and 1995 (185-year period), with ten articles represented at 20-year intervals. Salager-Meyer notes that the more-polemical-and-personal 19th-century direct academic conflicts in the medical articles have significantly decreased over time and switched to the more-hedged-and-impersonal 20th century indirect academic conflicts. Salager-Meyer's use of quantitative data is useful in showing the trend that indirect academic conflict has sharply increased after the 1930s, mostly in the Introduction and Discussion sections, through the use of hedges and impersonalisation. In the 20th-century indirect academic conflicts, according to Salager-Meyer, hedging devices such as modal verbs (for example, "*could*" and "*seem*"), probability adverbs (for example, "*probably*") and attitudinal verbs (for example, "*claim*") are used to soften or weaken disagreement so as to save both the proposed writer's and opposed writer's face. Another indirect strategy is to use a non-human agent or 'speaking fact' to disagree with some previous studies (for example, "*The results of our survey do not agree with* Opposed Writer's *survey results*") so as to reduce the proposed writer's commitment. These changes in the use and frequency of academic conflict reflect the evolution from a privately-and-individually-based and author-centred medicine towards a professionalized and fact-centred scientific community. Hence, the way 20th-century indirect academic conflicts are expressed,

which are characterised by uncertainty and mitigation, mirrors the epistemology of science today. However, the mention of merely two strategies of 'Hedges' and 'Shifting Responsibility' does not seem adequate to explain how the indirectness is expressed. Hence, this study is positioned relative to Hunston's (1993) and Salager-Meyer's (1999) work. Their work allows this study to build on the platform of existing knowledge and carry on from where they have already reached.

Although Mulkay (1985) studies written data, he uses conversation analysis, in particular Pomerantz's (1983) analysis, as providing a set of predictions about the form of agreements and disagreements in 80 biochemists' letters. Baym (1996: 325), follows Mulkay (1985), uses "a broader ethnographic analysis" to study 32,308 messages in a Usenet discussion. An important finding is that a few spoken disagreement strategies identified by Pomerantz have also been found in Mulkay's and Baym's written data. Pomerantz's spoken disagreement strategies of 'Agreement Tokens', 'Asserted Agreements' and 'Qualified Agreement Assertions', for example, are found in Mulkay's and Baym's written data under the different names of 'Agreement plus Disagreement' and 'Partial Agreement plus Disagreement Token', respectively. Mulkay (1985: 225) hence concludes that Pomerantz's findings in spoken context could be used as a guide to analyse written texts:

> "*The most general conclusion of this comparative investigation of spoken and written discourse is that Pomerantz' analysis of ordinary conversation has provided a fruitful point of departure for the study of epistolary texts. Not only have her findings with respect to the organisation of agreements and disagreements been shown broadly to apply to Perry letters, but the investigation of the issues raised in her analysis has revealed certain formal features of epistolary texts, as well as a possible difference between spoken and written disagreements, which are of interest and which need to be studied more systematically. The concepts and propositions formulated by Pomerantz in relation to conversations have been shown to be equally relevant to the analysis of letters.*"

Similary, Myers (1989) shows that Brown & Levinson's (1987) politeness model for spoken interactions could be applied to classify politeness strategies in claims and denials of claims in 60 Molecular Biological research articles. In his own words, Myers (1987: 30) concludes:

"*I have found written examples to illustrate many of the categories of Brown & Levinson devised for spoken interactions.*"

Encouraged by Mulkay's, Myers' and Baym's findings, a suitable starting base for this study would be to review and synthesise the current understanding of disagreement strategies in both spoken and written contexts gleaned from previous disagreement studies. It could also be reasonably expected that some of the disagreement strategies identified in the previous disagreement studies should provide a guide for the analysis of TAL disagreement instances in this study. Hence, the next section, Section 2.4.3, will turn to disagreement strategies identified in previous disagreement studies which have provided valuable information about how disagreement is expressed.

2.4.3 A review of disagreement strategies in previous disagreement studies

It becomes clear from the literature review that some disagreement studies provide more disagreement strategies than others. Stadler (2006), for example, provides a total of 32 disagreement strategies while Salager-Meyer (1999) probably only two. Quantity, however is less important than regularity in this research context. There are disagreement strategies which are mentioned regularly in previous disagreement studies and could be reasonably comparable to some of the disagreement steps in the TAL articles (see Section 5.2 for detail). A number of these disagreement strategies which are likely to appear in a written context are included in Appendix 3. This section will focus on five disagreement strategies which are described regularly in previous disagreement studies and appear frequently in the TAL disagreement instances (see Section 5.3.5 for detail); namely, 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction', 'Contradiction and Counterclaim', 'Question' and 'Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party'.

2.4.3.1 Disagreement strategy: 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction'

It seems that many previous disagreement studies see 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction' as an important strategy to express disagreement. In fact, this disagreement strategy is mentioned regularly in previous disagreement studies. This disagreement strategy is first observed by Sacks (1973, published 1987) and Pomerantz (1984) in conversations.

Subsequent to Pomerantz (1984), the strategy has been found in previous disagreement studies of both spoken data (Pearson, 1986; LoCastro, 1986; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kuo, 1994; Baym, 1996; Holtgraves, 1997; Myers, 1998; Rees-Miller, 2000; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Locher, 2004; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006) and written data (Mulkay, 1985; Myers, 1989; Baym, 1996) under different names (see Appendix 3).

Without exception, the previous disagreement studies all specify that this strategy consists of an agreement component (or positive remark), a contrastive conjunction (such as "*but*" or "*however*") and a disagreement component (or criticism). The agreement component is linked to the disagreement component by a contrastive conjunction. The essence of this strategy is to begin with a brief agreement. Once the agreement has been given, a contrastive conjunction will then follow. After that, disagreement with some aspect of an argument will be stated. 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction' could therefore serve as an indicator for an upcoming disagreement. Another notable aspect is that 'Initial Agreement with Contrastive Conjunction' is used to mitigate the potential offense of disagreement (for example, Pomerantz, 1984; Mulkay, 1985; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Kotthoff, 1993; Kuo, 1994; Rees-Miller, 2000; Stadler, 2006). Some previous disagreement studies even link this strategy explicitly to politeness (for example, Rees-Miller, 2000; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006) or positive politeness strategy (for example, Myers, 1989; Holtgraves, 1997).

2.4.3.2 Disagreement strategies: 'Contradiction' and 'Counterclaim'

As will be explained further in Section 5.2.1.3.1, the implicit disagreement step of 'Counterclaiming' in this study is a combination of the disagreement strategies of 'Contradiction' and 'Counterclaim' in previous disagreement studies. 'Contradiction' is found in Mulkay (1985), Pearson (1986), Hunston (1993), Kotthoff (1993), Baym (1996), Muntigl & Turnbull (1998), and Rees-Miller (2000). 'Counterclaim' is found in Kotthoff (1993), Muntigl & Turnbull (1998), Holmes & Stubbe (2003), and Cheng & Warren (2005) (see Appendix 3).

Muntigl & Turnbull (1998: 231) describes the forms of 'Counterclaim' as "an alternative claim that does not directly contradict nor challenge other's claim. Proposing alternative claims allows further negotiation of the T1 [Turn 1] claim". On the other hand, they describes 'Contradiction'

as “a speaker contradicts by uttering the negated proposition expression by the previous claim” (ibid). In other words, if speaker A utters P, then speaker B utters –P, or if A utters –P, then B utters P. Hence, ‘Contradiction’ usually contains a negative contradiction marker such as “*no*” or “*not*” or a positive contradiction marker such as “*ye*” or “*yeah*”. Two studies describe ‘Contradiction’ as strong disagreement because it is “an evaluation which is directly contrastive with the prior evaluation” (Pomerantz, 1984: 74) and “the most directly confrontational message features” (Baym, 1996: 333). On the other hand, Muntigl & Turnbull (1998) considers ‘Contradiction’, ‘Counterclaim’ and the combination of the two as less face-aggravating or less aggressive than ‘Irrelevancy Claim’ and ‘Challenge’. In their Ranking Survey results, they place ‘Contradiction’, ‘Counterclaim’ and the combination of the two in the Intermediate to Low aggressive categories. Similarly, Rees-Miller (2000) considers ‘Contradiction’ a neither softened nor strengthened disagreement strategy. In other words, ‘Counterclaim’ and ‘Contradiction’ can be used to express strong but implicit disagreement.

2.4.3.3 Disagreement strategy: ‘Question’

‘Question’ is found in several disagreement studies of spoken data (Kotthoff, 1993; Baym, 1996; Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998; Rees-Miller, 2000; Scott, 2002; Locher, 2004) and written data (Hunston, 1993). ‘Question’ is mentioned in these disagreement studies to serve the functions of softening or strengthening a disagreement. Rees-Miller (1995), for example, points out that questions could function as a mitigated disagreement by requesting information, introducing contradictory evidence or presenting a preferred alternative. Similarly, Locher (2004) notes that some questions could mitigate disagreement because the disagreement is implied in a question rather than stated directly. However, Rees-Miller (1995) notices that rhetorical questions could sometimes be seen as an aggravated disagreement to score points against an opponent because there could be no answer, the answer is obvious or an answer is provided subsequently. Muntigl & Turnbull (1998) also see questions as a challenge or disagreement to an addressee’s prior claim because questions implicate that the addressee could not provide evidence for his/her claim.

2.4.3.4 Disagreement strategy: ‘Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party’

This disagreement step is identified in the previous disagreement studies of spoken data

(Locher, 2004) and written data (Mulkay, 1985; Salager-Meyer, 1999), but under different names. Locher (2004), for instance, refers to it as 'Shifting Responsibility'. This strategy, according to Locher (2004), would allow a speaker to protect his/her own face and soften disagreement with a previous statement by marking the content of his/her point of view as coming from someone else. This could be achieved by using a non-human entity such as "*established views*" or personal pronouns such as "*He*", "*She*", "*They*" or "*You*" to exclude oneself or using "*We*" to spread responsibility when one was unavoidably included. Mulkay (1985), however, in a written context, terms it as 'Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party'. Mulkay points out that this strategy could allow the author to disagree with the opposed writer and/or his/her view more forcefully because the author could displace the responsibility of disagreement onto a third party and thus appears, textually, not to be the initiator of the disagreement. In contrast, Salager-Meyer's (1999: 389-390) 'Responsibility Shifting' is not the same entity, even though it has a similar name as Locher's (2004) 'Shifting Responsibility'. Salager-Meyer's (1999) 'Responsibility Shifting' is more a strategy of impersonalisation, in which a personal agent is removed or replaced by a non-human agent such as a 'speaking fact' or 'research outcomes'. As the disagreement step found in this study is similar in function to Locher's (2004) 'Shifting Responsibility' and Mulkay's (1985) 'Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party' and to avoid confusion with Salager-Meyer's (1999) 'Responsibility Shifting', the term 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' is used and its definition is kept.

2.5 Chapter summary

In summary, the review of literature highlights that disagreement is a crucial part of academic argument but it is also a risky part of academic argument which may enact agonism. This is made explicit in argument/argumentation and agonism. It is less explicitly stated in previous disagreement studies. This identifies the need for this study to investigate how disagreement with named researcher is expressed typically in TAL articles, and why the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do. This study intends to contribute some detail in terms of moves and steps to the rebuttal part of Toulmin's argument/argumentation model. This study also intends to add to the literature on disagreement in written contexts. Other useful insights gained from the literature review include a discipline-specific approach to argument/argumentation, differences between disagreement and agonism, notions of 'Opposed

Claim' and 'Proposed Claim', current trend of indirect academic disagreement, and various disagreement strategies identified in both spoken and written data.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, will review the literature relating to genre analysis and academic literacies in order to investigate how disagreement with named researcher is expressed typically in TAL articles, and why the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do.

Chapter 3

PRODUCT-BASED AND PROCESS-BASED APPROACHES TO DATA ANALYSIS

3.1 Chapter introduction

This study is placed between product-based (or genre analysis) and process-based (or academic literacies) approaches to data analysis in order to obtain answers to the two research questions posed in Chapter 1. As discussed in Chapter 1, this study uses the methods of both text analysis and interview to examine how disagreement is expressed in TAL articles and why TAL writers disagree in the ways they do. The text-analysis part of this study focuses on product-based approach to data analysis, or genre studies, which will be discussed in the first part of this chapter. The interview part of this study is concerned with process-based approach to data analysis, or academic literacies, which will be discussed in the second part of this chapter.

This chapter is organised into two main parts. The first part, Section 3.2, will review relevant literature related to genre analysis. The second part, Section 3.3, will review relevant literature from the field of academic literacies.

3.2 Product-based approach to data analysis: Genre studies

There are mainly three genre schools in three different research traditions, as Hyon (1996) points out; namely, systemic functional linguistics in Australia (or better known as the Sydney School), New Rhetoric studies in North America and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This study, however, chooses to take the ESP genre approach (and the reasons will be given in Section 3.2.1). Hence, this section will discuss five important aspects of ESP genre analysis which are relevant to the text analysis conducted in this study: move analysis, move identification, cycle of moves, move analysis procedure and discipline-specific approach.

3.2.1 Overview

This study takes an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) view of genre analysis, as mentioned earlier. This is mainly because ESP genre theory has been used for analysis of texts in academic

and professional fields, but most prominently research articles. The ESP genre approach originates significantly in the work of Swales (1981, 1990, 2004) and is developed by the works of other pioneers such as Dudley-Evans (1986) and Bhatia (1993). The ESP genre analysis has had a profound influence on the teaching of English for Specific Purposes, particularly on the teaching of academic writing to post-graduate students, that Hyon (1996) delineates it as a separate school. The ESP genre school aims at accounting for the way an academic or professional text product is constructed and also the way it is likely to be interpreted and used in specific contexts to achieve specific communicative purposes. In other words, the principal aim of the ESP genre school is to describe the conventionally used rhetorical structure which allows users of a genre to achieve their communicative purposes, and the linguistic (or lexico-grammatical) features available to realize the rhetorical structure required in their disciplines or professions. However, they tend to pay less attention to the social contexts around academic and professional genres (Hyon, 1996). The emphasis of genre analysis, therefore, is on a product-based approach (Kanoksilapatham, 2007), as stated by Swales (1990: 127),

> "*…the world itself evaluates the end product…editors and reviewers evaluate the product they receive, and do not encourage accompanying accounts of how long or how agonizing the construction processes were…at the end of the day, it is the product that counts*".

A number of ESP genre researchers have used move analysis to describe the rhetorical structure, or organization of moves and steps, in specific genres; for example, research articles (for example, Swales, 1981, 1990, 2004) or business letters (for example, Bhatia, 1993). However, it is the research article that has received extensive attention in the ESP genre research. Swales' genre analysis is an influential work which has given rise to a substantial number of studies on individual (i.e., Abstract, Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion and/or Conclusion) or overall sections of research articles in various disciplines. Most of these genre-based studies apply Swales' move analysis to investigate the rhetorical structure, or moves and steps, of individual sections of research articles; for example, Introduction (for example, Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1986; Dudley-Evans & Henderson, 1990; Brett, 1994; Anthony, 1999; Posteguillo, 1999; Al-Ali & Holme, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Kanoksilaptham, 2005, 2011; Ozturk, 2007), Methods (for example, Brett, 1994; Bloor, 1999; Al-Ali & Holme, 1999; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2006; Peacock, 2011), Results (for example, Brett, 1994;

Williams, 1999; Posteguillo, 1999; Al-Ali & Holme, 1999; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2010), Discussion (for example, Dudley-Evans, 1986, 1994; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Al-Ali & Holme, 1999; Peacock, 2002; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Basturkmen, 2009, 2012; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013), and Conclusion (Posteguillo, 1999; Ruiying & Allison, 2003) sections. This is perhaps scarcely surprising because the research article is the main channel of scholarly communication and dissemination of research discoveries in many disciplines (Holmes, 1997). Given its academic and specialist focus, ESP genre analysis is therefore considered most applicable to this study. Some key elements of ESP genre analysis are relevant to the text analysis conducted in this study; namely, the notions of moves and steps.

While Swales (1990: 95, 110) identifies research article as a genre, it is quite difficult to decide whether the instances of disagreement in this study should be considered a genre. This is because the disagreement instances in TAL articles may be found within any section of TAL articles (which will be discussed in detail in Section 5.3.1). Hence, the disagreement instances found in TAL articles may be more appropriately considered disagreement segments within the genre of research article. Although the disagreement segments may not be a genre, the Move-Step method Swales (1981, 1990, 2004) proposes can be readily adapted for the analysis of any section of a research article. It is an approach to text analysis that examines the regularities of internal structure. However, this study does not seek to distinguish one type of text or genre from another. This study uses move analysis to merely analyse the internal structure of disagreement instances within the genre of research articles, or more specifically TAL articles.

3.2.2 Move analysis

As mentioned above, the main reason this study adapts the ESP genre approach is to use Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) Move-Step method to analyse the internal structure of TAL disagreement instances. This is in line with the purpose of move analysis. The basic aim of moves analysis is to examine how the message in a text of a genre is organised as well as how language users prefer to organize that message. This organisation is often described as categorizing various 'moves' within a text according to their communicative functions. Hence, a move refers to a discourse or rhetorical unit performing a specific communicative function in a

particular segment of a text (Dudley-Evans, 1986; Nwogu, 1997; Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2011; Basturkmen, 2012; Amnuai & Wannaruk 2013). Each move is part of the text that not only has its own purpose but also contributes to fulfilling the overall communicative purpose of the text. In other words, in move analysis, a text typically comprises of a series of moves. Within each move, the language users may use one 'step' or a combination of 'steps' (Swales, 1981, 1990, 2004) to realize a certain move. The concept of move captures the function of a segment of text, and step captures the rhetorical choices of realising the function of a certain move. Swales' (1990) CARS (Create A Research Space) model indicates that, for example, research article introductions typically contain three moves—Move 1 'Establishing a Territory', Move 2 'Establishing a Niche' and Move 3 'Occupying the Niche'. Move 1 'Establishing a Territory' can be realized by three steps—Step 1 'Claiming Centrality', Step 2 'Making Topic Generalisation(s)', and/or Step 3 'Reviewing Items of Previous Research'. However, Bhatia (2001a) divides 'steps', or what he termed 'sub-moves', into 'stages' and 'strategies'. According to Bhatia, 'stages' are parts of a move to fulfill the function of the move; for example, in Swales' (1990) CARS model, Step 2 'Announcing Principal Findings' and Step 3 'Indicating Research Article Structure' are stages of realizing part of Move 3 'Occupying the Niche'. 'Strategies', on the other hand, are optional rhetorical choices available to language users to realize the function of a certain move; for example, Step 1A 'Counter-claiming', or Step 1B 'Indicating a Gap', or Step 1C 'Question-raising', or Step 1D 'Continuing a Tradition' are different strategies of realizing Move 2 'Establishing a Niche'.

This study uses Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) Move-Step method to analyse the TAL disagreement segments or instances at two levels of moves and steps because 'move' and 'step' are widely used and widely known concept in move analysis. Moreover, the criteria for determining 'stage' and 'strategy' is not specified, while 'move' and 'step' can be obligatory (if found in 100% of all texts), conventional (between 60% and 99%) or optional (less than 60%). Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2011) and Amnuai & Wannaruk (2013) define the criteria for justifying and classifying the frequency of each move as obligatory, conventional and optional. A particular move is regarded as 'obligatory' if it occurs in every text (100%); it is regarded as 'conventional' if it occurs in between 60% and 99% of all the texts; and it is 'optional' if it

occurs in below 60% of all the texts. In addition, a move and step must have occurred with about 50% (Nwogu, 1997) or 60% (Kanoksilapatham, 2005) regularity in a corpus to be considered a stable move and step.

3.2.2.1 Move identification

Since the text analysis of this study is reliant on move and step as a central concept, it is important to know how to identify a move. Despite the importance of this issue, it is not widely discussed in previous genre studies. Only a few studies (for example, Paltridge, 1994) have critically examined the criteria which have been used for the identification of move. The following sections will discuss advantages and disadvantages of three criteria with the aim of identifying the criteria which could be used for the identification of move in this study; namely, linguistic signals, content and a-third-party (informant, coder or author) corroboration.

3.2.2.1.1 Linguistic signals

One common criterion used for the identification of move is linguistic signals. Many move analysts use linguistic signals to identify moves or move boundaries; for example, Crookes (1986), Dudley-Evans (1986, 1994), Swales & Najjar (1987), Thompson (1993), Brett (1994), Holmes (1997, 2001), Bloor (1999), Williams (1999), Posteguillo (1999), Al Ali & Holme (1999), Peacock (2002), Ruiying & Allison (2003), Swales (2004), Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2011), Lim (2006, 2010), Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli (2008), Basturkmen (2012) and Amnuai & Wannaruk (2013). Nwogu (1991, 1997) defines move as a text segment which is made up of a bundle of linguistic features to signal the content of the discourse within a text segment. He specifies that moves and their constituent elements are determined partly by inferencing from context, but mostly by reference to specific linguistic signals in the discourse.

Move analysis usually aims to present linguistic explanations for move structure, or describe moves in linguistic (or lexico-grammatical) terms. Linguistic signals are easy to be identified because they are observable, explicit and clear-cut clues in a text. However, linguistic signals are not necessarily the most reliable criterion for identifying moves. It is undeniable that linguistic signals provide some helpful and useful clues in indicating the function of a move, but it is not always possible to find one-to-one correlation between linguistic signals and moves, or

form and function, as Bhatia (1993, 2001) also finds. It is possible, Bhatia says, for a particular rhetorical function of a move to be realised by one or more different linguistic features. It is also equally possible for a particular linguistic feature to perform one or more functions. Lewin, Fine & Young (2001), for example, state that they could not identify any move by linguistic signals. They say the form-function issue negates linguistic signals as a criterion for move identification. To illustrate this, they give an example of the lexeme 'finding' which could be used to realise two functions: (1) an interpretation ("*The findings suggest…*"), and (2) a statement of results ("*The principal finding is that…*").

Particularly important is that Bhatia (2001a: 85) makes clear that "it is important to remember that although moves have surface-level lexico-grammatical realisations, they are essentially functional in character and are closely associated with the realisations of the communicative purpose(s) of the genre. Moves are recognised in terms of functional values that are assigned to linguistic forms. Therefore, in analysing genres we do not target lexico-grammatical forms, but the communicative values that these linguistic forms carry, although these lexico-grammatical forms signal and often realise relevant aspects of such communicative values." He adds that, "By analysing communicative values, rather than linguistic forms, one can better focus on the integrity of the genre in question, and hence avoid a tendency to assign values to every linguistic form leading to a rather misleading proliferation of moves" (Bhatia, 2001a: 85). Paltridge (1994) also points out that it is not always possible to determine the boundaries of moves in texts by reference to lexico-grammatical features. Paltridge examines patterns of lexical cohesion in an example of genre analysis presented by Bhatia (1993). He finds that each of the lexical chains presented extends beyond the boundaries of the moves identified in the text (see Figure 2 in Paltridge, 1994). Of the above-mentioned move analysts who use linguistic signals to identify move or move boundaries, many (Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1986, 1994; Holmes, 1997, 2001; Bloor, 1999; Al Ali & Holme, 1999; Peacock, 2002; Kanoksilapatham, 2005) make explicit that they make decisions only partly on the basis of linguistic signals.

3.2.2.1.2 Content

A more reliable criterion for a move analyst to identify moves or move boundaries is content or what some move analysts refer to as '(communicative) function' (Bhatia, 1993, 2001; Holmes,

1997; Bloor, 1999; Al Ali & Holme, 1999; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013), 'understanding of topic/subject matter' (Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1986), 'a close reading of the text proper' (Thompson, 1993), 'repeated readings' (Ruiying & Allison, 2003), 'understanding/comprehension of text' (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Peacock, 2002; Basturkmen, 2012) and 'definitions' (Peacock, 2011). Crookes (1986: 66), for example, shows with an example that when there is no explicit linguistic signal, a heavy reliance is placed on the analysts' "understanding of the topic as a whole, and relations between different aspects of it" to decide move boundaries. This view also finds support in the work of Dudley-Evans (1994). Moreover, Bhatia (1993: 87) highlights that function or content, rather than form or linguistic signals, is paramount in identifying moves,

> "*The whole point of the present discussion is that although surface signals are fairly reliable indicators of discoursal values in a majority of discourse contexts, the ultimate criteria for assigning discourse values to various moves is functional rather than formal.*"

Paltridge (1994) also points out that the boundaries of moves and steps are cognitively determined, based on 'content', 'convention' and 'appropriacy', rather than based on linguistic features. As Paltridge (1994: 295) concludes, "the conclusion to be reached here, then, is that the search for structural divisions in texts should be seen as a search for cognitive boundaries in terms of convention, appropriacy, and content rather than as a search for linguistically defined boundaries; that is, there are non-linguistic, rather than linguistic, reasons for generic staging in texts." Furthermore, Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilaptham (2007: 32) also use function or content to identify moves. They state that "a functional approach to text analysis calls for cognitive judgement, rather than a reliance on linguistic criteria, to identify the intention of a text and the textual boundaries (see also Bhatia, 1993; Paltridge, 1994). This approach is in line with the theoretical definition of a move; that is, that each move has a local purpose but also contributes to the overall rhetorical purpose of the text". However, Bhatia (1993, 2001), Paltridge (1994) and Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham (2007) provide little detail on how to use function or content to identify moves or move boundaries.

Lewin, Fine & Young (2001) are perhaps one the very few ESP genre analysts who develop a method to account for the variety of realisations of the same move in different texts. They suggest using participants and their attributes as an approach for various realisations of the same

move. In their approach, the necessary components of realising a move are semantic participants and their attributes. Firstly, each statement contains at least one of the following three participants (1a) the research (product or producer), (1b) the phenomena being studied, and/or (1c) the population affected by the phenomena. Secondly, each participant bears some attribute. For example, Text 1, Text 2 and Text 3 below are three different realisations of Move 2 in research article introductions—'Establishing the Gap'. The participant in Text 1 is the research product—*previous applications of these theories*—which bears the attribute of defect—*limited*. The participant in Text 2 is the research product—*previous tests of the theories*—which bears the attribute of defect—*The major problems*. The participant in Text 3 is the research product—*many previous studies on X*—which bears the attribute of defect—*have not included*. The participants in Text 1 (*previous applications of these theories*), Text 2 (*previous tests of the theories*) and Text 3 (*many previous studies on X*) can be classified as research products. The adjective (*limited*) in Text 1, the nominal group (*The major problems*) in Text 2, and the process (*have not included*) in Text 3 can be classified as the same attribute to essentially describe a defect in the research. Hence, Lewin, Fine & Young propose that the criteria of semantic components of participants and their attributes, rather than specific lexicogrammatical structures, account for the realisation of Move 2—'Establishing the Gap'. However, the attributes mentioned in Lewin, Fine & Young's (2001) approach still very much relies on explicit linguistic signals. In using content or function for move identification, one operates in a realm where there is often no explicit linguistic signal. In cases where there is no explicit linguistic signal, as will be shown later in Section 5.2, a move can only be identified through understanding of the content of a text, statements precede and follow the move which clarify its meaning and author's corroboration.

Text 1:	*...**previous applications of these theories*** [Research Product] *are **limited*** [Claim of Defect] *in several respects.*
Text 2:	***The major problems*** [Claim of Defect] *with **previous tests of the theories*** [Research Product] *involves…*
Text 3:	***Many previous studies on X*** [Research Product] ***have not included*** [Claim of Defect] *control or comparison groups in the design…*

On the other hand, Swales' early work has been criticised for not making clear and critically examining the criteria for realising and identifying a move or move boundaries which are postulated as underpinning move analysis (for example, Crookes, 1986; Paltridge, 1994; Bhatia,

2001a; Lewin, Fine & Young, 2001). In response to this criticism, Swales (2004: 228) re-formulates his description of the notion of 'move' in genre analysis as "a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse. Although it has sometimes been aligned with a grammatical unit such as a sentence, utterance, or paragraph (e.g., Crookes, 1986), it is better seen as flexible in terms of its linguistic realization. At one extreme, it can be realized by a clause; at the other by several sentences. It is a functional, not a formal, unit". In this new definition, Swales clearly points to more than one criterion when he states further that "the identification of moves, and consequently the setting of move boundaries, is established by a mixed bag of criteria, which together typically—if not universally—produce defensible decision criteria (see especially Nwogu, 1990: 126-135, and Bhatia, 2001). As Nwogu notes, move identification tends to be a bottom-up process, but it is also one influenced by intuitions derived from our schemata about the structuring of text-types and genres". Swales points to linguistic signals when he goes on to give many examples of linguistic signals for signalling certain moves. However, he seems to point to content or function and linguistic signals when he cites "Nwogu (1990: 126-135) and Bhatia (2001)", but he does not adequately discuss how to use content or function to identify a move or move boundaries.

In this study, it is decided to draw mainly on content to cognitively identify moves and their constituent steps, and partly on linguistic signals. Since content is central to move analysis, this study examined disagreement instances from just one discipline—Theoretical and Applied Linguistics which is also my own field of study—to ensure understanding of topic and content. A functional approach to move analysis involves cognitive judgement to identify the function of a move and move boundaries. However, one weakness is that content, or function, is difficult to define and perceive clearly. Focusing on content therefore involves the issue of subjectivity because moves are determined intuitively. Hence, it is important to complement move analysis with interview or author's corroboration (which will be discussed in detail in Section 3.2.2.1.3.3) in order to reduce the subjectivity.

The second problem is that Swales does not specify the extent of a move, or move boundaries. A move can vary ranging from a clause, a sentence, to several sentences (Swales, 2004; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli 2008; Lim, 2010; Kanoksilapatham, 2011). However, many move analysts select the sentence as the unit of analysis (for example, Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1994;

Holmes, 1997, 2001; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Ozturk, 2007). In this study, each sentence in a text is assigned to a move and a step label. The following suggestions from previous move-based studies are also adopted in this study. Crookes (1986), Holmes (1997, 2001), Ozturk (2007) and Amnuai & Wannaruk (2013) suggest that, in the cases where one sentence appears to contain two or more moves and steps, the sentence is assigned to the move and step that appear to be more salient. However, when there are cases where it is impossible to decide which of the two moves and steps within a sentence is more salient, it is coded as containing two moves and steps, as suggested by Holmes (1997). Because a move is semantically determined, as Kanoksilaptham (2011) points out, the size of the move can vary ranging from a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph, to multiple paragraphs. In addition, to identify the regularity of step occurrence, Lim (2010) suggests that the number of occurrences of each step is calculated by considering the number of times it appears without being interrupted by any other step. Hence, a step may consist of a main clause or several sentences insofar as its occurrence is not interrupted by any other step. For example, if a move starts with Step 1, followed by Step 2 (makes up at least a clause), and then returns to Step 1, Step 1 will be counted as having occurred twice.

3.2.2.1.3 A third party corroboration

It is perhaps unavoidable that the process of move identification does involve a degree of subjectivity (Holmes, 1997, 2001; Anthony, 1999; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007; Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Amirian, Kassain & Tavakoli, 2008). Hence, it is necessary to use a third party to corroborate the results of move analysis. A number of ESP genre analysts have increasingly used a third party (specialist informant, coder and/or author) in addition to the principal researcher. A review of the literature shows that, subsequent to Swales (1980), many ESP genre analysts still use purely text-based move analysis (for example, Dudley-Evans, 1986; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Dudley-Evans & Henderson, 1990; Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Williams, 1999; Posteguillo, 1999; Al Ali & Holme, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Basturkmen, 2009; Kanoksilapatham, 2011). However, subsequent to Swales (1990), and particularly subsequent to Swales (2004), in terms of methodology, there has been increasing employment of specialist informants (for example, Dudley-Evans, 1994; Bloor, 1999; Lim, 2006), coders (for example, Crookes, 1986; Holmes, 2001; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Ozturk, 2007; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Lim, 2010;

Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013) as well as specialist informants and authors (for example, Anthony, 1999; Basturkmen, 2012). This section will review the advantages and disadvantages of using specialist informant, coder or author with a focus on their suitability for corroborating the move analysis of TAL disagreement instances in this study.

3.2.2.1.3.1 Specialist informants

What follows is an attempt to present some of the ESP genre analysts who have made use of and discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using specialist informants. When Swales, who pioneered the ESP genre school, introduced his model for research article introductions in 1981, he used purely text-based move analysis. This earlier move analysis of Swales' (1981) was criticised for lacking empirical validation by, for example, Crookes (1986). In fact, Swales (1981, 1990, 2004) himself is aware of this limitation. He described the terminological labels in his earlier 1981 version of the CARS model as "unsubstantiated and ill-defined…are little more than a reflection of my own perceptual predispositions" (1981: 14). Although he suggested consulting a specialist informant, he did not do so himself in his 1981 work. When Swales revisited his work in 1990, he elicited the help of a specialist informant to explain certain responses to reprint requests. Nevertheless, he seemed sceptical about the usefulness of using a specialist informant as he cited a number of problems with using a specialist informant. First, he argued that discussion with a specialist informant might be subject to subjective features of speculative insights, prior intellectual commitments, personal characteristics, indescribable skills, social ties and group membership. Second, genre analysts might believe all that they heard from a specialist informant. Third, Swales argued that specialist informant work could be very time-consuming for genre analysts. Fourth, discussions with different specialist informants for each discipline could raise uncertainty when comparing research articles from different disciplines. Fifth, while Swales (1990) recognized that a specialist informant could always play a partial and supportive role for offering 'behind the scenes' insight, providing professional confirmation and testing formulated hypotheses and findings for certain types of analysis for certain parts of texts, the general need for a specialist informant might decrease if the genre analysts possessed much relevant experience. Lastly, and most importantly, there were a myriad of instances in the literature where specialist informants misread specialized texts or offered a rather different interpretation to that provided by the authors. Swales (1990: 129) hence stated that "we might

conclude, then, that the role of the subject specialist informant in RA genre analysis remains, given the current levels of evaluated experience, somewhat controversial".

Nevertheless, when Swales revisited his CARS model again in 2004, he not only uses specialist informants, but also interviews and emails authors (see Section 3.2.2.1.3.3 for detail). Swales (2004) uses specialist informants to understand the common rhetorical practices in certain disciplines and provide the necessary background information for understanding how certain discourses have come to be as they are. Specialist informants are employed by Swales (2004), for example, to confirm that research articles in top-ranked research journals remain the most important genre across all disciplines and to find out the purposes of 'Engineering Notes'. Swales recognizes that specialist informants have been employed in ESP research since the early 1980s for purposes of explication and evaluation, and coders have been employed to temper reliance on personal and individual judgment. He also recognizes that while specialist informants and coders "can greatly enhance our understanding of particular texts", sometimes their different readerly perspectives can "produce conflicting results" (2004: 82).

Despite the weaknesses mentioned by Swales (1990), a few ESP genre analysts (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Anthony, 1999; Bloor, 1999; Lim, 2006; Basturkmen, 2012) use specialist informants for their studies. Although Anthony (1999) interviews and emails specialist informants, he cautions that over-reliance on specialist informants may invite the danger of genre analysts believing all that they hear. However, he provides a solution to avoid this danger, which has been adapted by this study, by interviewing more than one specialist informant separately. These specialist informants are not informed of the others' responses in order to give the principal researcher a broader scope on which to make judgements. This could also reduce the 'halo effect' so that the specialist informants would not give answers which they think the interviewer want to hear or which they think the correct answer should be.

3.2.2.1.3.2 Coders

In addition to specialist informants, inter-coder agreement is added to their text analysis by many ESP genre analysts (for example, Crookes, 1986; Holmes, 2001; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Ozturk, 2007; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Lim, 2010; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). They argue that a sufficiently high level of inter-coder agreement

would ensure accuracy (Crookes, 1986), objectivity (Crookes, 1986; Amirian, Kassain & Tavakoli, 2008), and/or reliability (Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007; Ozturk, 2007; Amirian, Kassain & Tavakoli, 2008; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). They often select non-specialist coders such as post-graduate students who are (for example, Kanoksilaptham, 2005) or are not (for example, Crookes, 1986) from the focused disciplines, and/or academic staff who are not from the focused disciplines but have knowledge of genre analysis (for example, Amirian, Kassain & Tavakoli, 2008; Lim, 2010; Peacock, 2011; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). Only few studies have used specialist coders who are members of the focused disciplines (for example, Peacock, 2002; Lim, 2006; Ozturk, 2007). However, Crookes (1986) points out that coders' lack of adequate training and understanding of topics in the focused disciplines may limit the accuracy of their codings. If inter-coder agreement is low, results have to be interpreted with caution. More importantly, as Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham (2007: 35) point out, "inter-coder reliability should not be confused with objectivity or validity; it is rather just a measure of consistency and agreement". Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham (2007) include inter-coder agreement as part of their procedures in doing a move analysis. However, as they also point out, it is the process of identifying, discussing and resolving discrepancies among the principal researcher and third party (author, specialist informant and/or coder) which is of prime importance because it encourages the principal researcher to arrive at a more explicit description of what each move and step represents.

3.2.2.1.3.3 Authors

In addition to specialist informants and coders discussed above, authors can also be used for a-third-party corroboration. However, the review of literature shows that very few ESP genre analysts (for example, Bhatia, 1982, 1993; Anthony, 1999; Swales, 2004; Basturkmen, 2012) have interviewed the authors of their data. Anthony (1999), for example, emails the authors and asks why they include a specific step—'A Summary of the Remaining RA Structure'—in their research articles. Basturkmen (2012) is also one of the few ESP genre analysts who extends her investigation by emailing the authors and asking for their comments on the analysis of certain sample sections and the functions identified. Although they do not interview authors, Kanoksilapatham (2011) and Amnuai & Wannaruk (2013) recognize the limitation and suggest interviewing authors for future research. Interviewing the authors would "deeply probe into the

contexts of creating research articles" (Kanoksilapatham, 2011: 81), and "make the results more reliable…because interviewing can contribute to a better understanding of the writers' intention and the conventional structure of the writing in this particular genre" (Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013: 11).

Bhatia (1982, 1993), another pioneer of ESP genre school, is perhaps one of the first genre analysts to use the original author as a specialist informant over a period of about three years. He consults a senior Parliamentary Counsel who is primarily responsible for the writing of the object of analysis in his thesis—the British Housing Act 1980. Bhatia (1993) encourages the use of an author/specialist-informant as he highlights the important role played by an author/specialist-informant in confirming a genre analyst's findings, bringing validity to the analyst's insights, adding psychological reality to the analysis and bringing in relevant explanation for the analysis. However, he also mentions the difficulty in finding a truly resourceful author/specialist-informant and in developing a common understanding of the purpose of enquiry. Bhatia (1993) suggests that an appropriate author/specialist-informant should be a competent specialist member of a disciplinary culture who is prepared to talk openly about various aspects of the genre under study and to explain clearly what they believe expert members of the disciplinary culture do when these expert members use language to accomplish their communicative purposes. Of particular importance is that Bhatia (1993) cites Huckin & Olsen's (1984) conclusion that the most useful specialist informant one can find for a text is the actual author of that text.

Moreover, in a purely text-based joint research with Najjar in 1987 on research article introductions in Physics and Educational Psychology, Swales found a new step in Move 4—'Announcing Principal Findings'—which was not mentioned in his (1981) 4-move schema. He also identified discipline-specific variations in the use of the step between the two different disciplines. However, he was unable to fully explain the causes of the phenomena. Hence, he called for enquiry into the perspectives of authors, editors and manual writers about the beliefs and judgmental processes involved in the research writing process, "However, a text-based study such as this has interpretive limitations once the discourse analysis and comparison between description and prescription has been completed. A fuller explanation of the phenomena reported would seem to require some seeking out of the beliefs and judgmental processes of

those concerned with the research writing process—*authors* [my emphasis], editors, and manual writers" (Swales & Najjar, 1987: 188). When Swales revisited his CARS model for the second time in 2004, he not only uses specialist informants (see Section 3.2.2.1.3.1 for detail), but also interviews and emails authors. Swales (2004) interviews different authors from different disciplines to explain, for instance, why certain grammatical features are used in a genre (for example, passive voice, backgrounded information and initial purpose clause). Furthermore, he also emails some authors to enquire about, for instance, the lack of detail about collecting data in a field. Swales is of the view that it would be an error to enquire about, for example, how a certain infirmity of an author has influenced his or her use of a certain grammatical feature. Instead, the interviews should focus on understanding the texts being analysed and "capturing regularized disciplinary proclivities and preferences" (Swales, 2004: 80). Hence, Swales (2004), alongside Hyland (2000, cited in Swales, 2004), encourages researchers to go beyond purely text analysis of academic discourse by adding one-on-one interviews or focus group discussions with senior academics. What has been observed in Swales (2004) is that specialist informants can assist in answering general questions about writing practices and conventions (see Section 3.2.2.1.3.1), but one-on-one interviews with the authors can assist greatly in answering general as well as text-based questions (i.e., the reasons for writing in a specific way in a specific article).

After weighing the advantages and disadvantages, interviewing authors can be considered a more suitable method for a-third-party corroboration in this study because it circumvents some significant limitations associated with using specialist informants and coders. Authors themselves are both specialist informants from the focused disciplines and the actual writers of the research articles. Authors can therefore assist greatly in both general as well as specific text-based questions.

3.2.2.2 Cycle of moves

In addition to move identification discussed above, another aspect of ESP genre approach which is of relevance to this study is the concept of cyclicity. Dudley-Evans (1986) is probably one of the first ESP genre analysts who introduces the concept of 'cyclical organisation of moves'. His analysis of seven MSc dissertations in Plant Biology reveals that certain moves are

realised by a cyclical pattern in the introduction sections and certain moves recur in cycles within the discussion sections. For example, he finds that there are generally three parts in the discussion sections—namely, (1) Introduction, (2) Evaluation of Results, and (3) Conclusions and Future Work. He also finds 11 moves (which were numbered from Move 1 to Move 11) in part 2: Evaluation of Results, which is the greatest part of the discussion section. Part 2 is often realised by a series of cycles in which the compulsory Move 2:'Statement of Result' is followed by one or more of the other ten moves mentioned above. For example, the part 2 of one particular discussion section in his data follows the following cycles of moves: 234; 279; 34; 245; 2423; 252436; 234352; 126,10; 124,10.

Swales first mentions the idea of cyclicity in a joint research with Najjar in 1987 where they examine 110 article introductions in Physics and Educational Psychology published in 1943, 1963 and 1983. They find that the introductions published in 1983 are quite long and often contain cyclic iterations of Move 2-3-4 sequences. When Swales revisited the CARS model in 1990, he largely confirms the cycles of Move 1-Step 3 and Move 2 in, particularly, longer introductions in a research field which "is viewed as branching consisting of several loosely-connected topics" (Swales, 1990: 158). Swales then tests the 1990 CARS model on new data—four article introductions in Applied Linguistics. The results show that the four introductions contain all three moves given in the 1990 CARS model, but, interestingly, the three moves are not necessarily organised in a linear sequence from Moves 1, 2 to 3 as described by his own model. Instead, the Applied Linguistics introductions show a considerable amount of cycling of Moves 1 and 2. It is worth mentioning here that Swales also points out that cyclicity is more evident in the social sciences (of which Theoretical and Applied Linguistics is one) than engineering and the natural and life sciences. Swales (1990) also emphasises the presence of repeated cycles of moves—for example, 'Statement of Results'—in the discussion sections. When Swales revisited the CARS model for the second time more than a decade later in 2004, he underlines the potential cycling of Move 1 and Move 2 sequences in longer introductions.

The existence of cycles of moves at any section in a research article is more or less well-established because, subsequent to Swales (1981, 1990, 2004), other studies also report that cycles of moves occur in different sections of research articles in different disciplines; for example, introduction (Crookes, 1986 –Hard Sciences, Biology/Medical field and Social

Sciences; Dudley-Evans & Henderson, 1990 –Economics; Brett, 1994 –Sociology; Posteguillo, 1999 –Computer Science; Anthony, 1999 –Software Engineering; Samraj, 2002 –Wildlife Behaviour and Conservation Biology; Kanoksilapatham, 2005 –Biochemistry; Kanoksilapatham, 2011 –Civil Engineering), methods (Peacock, 2011 –Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Business, Language & Linguistics, Law and Public & Social Administration), results (Posteguillo, 1999 – Computer Science; Williams, 1999 –Medicine; Ruiying & Allison, 2003 –Applied Linguistics; Kanoksilapatham, 2005 -Biochemistry), results & discussion (Brett, 1994 –Sociology; Al Ali & Holme -Pharmacognosy), discussion (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988 –Biology and Irrigation & Drainage; Holmes, 1997 –History, Political Science and Sociology; Holmes, 2001 –Agricultural Economics; Peacock, 2002 –Language & Linguistics, Law, Physics, Environmental Science, Biology and Public & Social Administration; Kanoksilapatham, 2005 –Biochemistry; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008 –Applied Linguistics; Basturkmen, 2009 –Language Teaching; Basturkmen, 2012 –Dentistry; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013 –Applied Linguistics), and conclusion (Posteguillo, 1999 –Computer Science).

What is more relevant to this study is that move-based studies on research articles in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics have pointed to cycles of moves in different sections, such as methods (Peacock, 2011), results (Ruiying & Allison, 2003), and discussion (Peacock, 2002; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Basturkmen, 2009; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). Peacock (2002), who compares the discussion sections of 252 research articles from seven disciplines (Physics and Material Science, Biology, Environmental Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Public and Social Administration, and Law), explicitly points out that move cycles are found to occur much more frequently in Language & Linguistics and Law. Hence, since this study uses move analysis and TAL disagreement instances could occur within any section within a TAL article, cycles of moves could be anticipated.

3.2.2.3 Move analysis procedure

It is also of particular relevance to know the procedure for move analysis. In previous ESP genre studies (for example, Crookes, 1986; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013), the common procedure to conduct move analysis is as follows: (1) a principal researcher identifies the possible moves and steps of a

genre, (2) the principal researcher recruits a third party (specialist informant, coder and/or author) to discuss and validate the moves and steps, and (3) the principal researcher reviews the moves and steps.

In the first step, a principal researcher reads all texts in a corpus. Then, the principal researcher examines the texts for all possible moves. Only one rhetorical move is ascribed to a segment according to the functional-semantic purpose of the text segment. Each move is then coded for its constituent steps. At this point, at least one coder, specialist informant or author is recruited to assist with the move analysis. If a coder is used, the procedure is more complicated than using a specialist informant or author. The principal researcher usually recruits at least one coder who is a member of the focused discipline or who has expertise in genre analysis. Moreover, the principal researcher usually conducts a training session to explain the purpose of the task and to acquaint the coder with the use of the coding system. The coder then practices analyzing a few representative examples whose rhetorical structure has already been established. After that, the coder independently codes a subset of the corpus. Based on the independent coding by the principal researcher and the coder, the findings are compared and inter-coder reliability is measured by agreement rate or percentage agreement and kappa value. Following that, the principal researcher and coder go through the texts to identify any coding disagreements. Any discrepancies at this point are to be resolved through discussion and clarification of the function of each move and step.

On the other hand, if a specialist informant is used, the principal researcher usually consults the specialist informant separately in a face-to-face interview and/or via email. The principal researcher often discusses the content and analysis of the texts with the specialist informant (for example, Anthony, 1999; Basturkmen, 2012) or asked about the specialist informant's view on writing a specific section of a text and the nature of writing in the focused discipline in general (for example, Anthony, 1999). Subsequently, the principal researcher re-codes problematic texts and reviews the description of each move and step. This would result in a protocol of moves and steps for the genre, with explicit definitions and examples. After that, in some studies (for example, Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013), the frequency of each move and step in each text is recorded and classified into obligatory, conventional or optional. In other studies (for example,

Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Lim, 2010), the principal researcher analyses the moves and steps for their salient lexico-grammatical choices.

All the above-mentioned suggestions for move identification and classification have influenced this study. First, this study works from a sentence-level analysis. Second, this study identifies the moves and steps that comprise the disagreement instances in the TAL articles according to their functions. Third, this study examines how individual moves and their constituent steps are realized in salient lexico-grammatical choices. Fourth, this study corroborates the classification of moves and steps by interviewing the actual writers of the TAL articles. Fifth, this study follows the common procedure for move analysis, as mentioned above.

3.2.3 A general CARS model versus discipline-specific variations

As the previous sections have shown, there is a considerable amount of work looking at genres and dividing them into moves and steps. Before moves and steps can be identified, however, it has to be decided what a genre consists of, and a big question in academic genre is the extent to which disciplines share genres or have discipline-specific genres. There is a debate in the literature as to whether research article is a single genre (i.e., a general model) or each discipline needs a different description of its own genre of research article (i.e., discipline-specific variations). The literature review on this debate has shown not only stronger evidence for discipline-specific variations but also a shift in the direction of discipline-specific approach to genre analysis. This has, in turn, assisted this study in arriving at a decision to take a discipline-specific focus, rather than developing a general model for TAL disagreement instances. The debate started with Swales' (1981) general model for research article introductions and other genre analysts' criticisms of the general model. To understand the debate over a general model or a discipline-specific approach, this section will give a summary of the development, criticism and changes of Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) model.

Swales (1981) started with a general model. He analysed 48 Introduction sections of research articles which were taken from a wide range of academic disciplines in 1981. Of these article introductions, 16 were taken from physics, 16 from medicine and 16 from social sciences. He found that over 70% of the 48 article introductions contained a common series of four moves. Hence, he originally proposed a 4-move model for research article Introductions (see Appendix 2

for detail). However, subsequent move-based studies provide evidence of discipline-specific variations in applying Swales' (1981) four-move model to introductions in other disciplines. For example, Crookes (1986) examines 96 research article introductions from three disciplines; namely, Hard Sciences, Biology or Medical field and Social sciences. Crookes reports discipline-specific variations; for example, the four-move model posited by Swales (1981)—M1-M2-M3-M4—is not observed in any social science introductions, while it occurs in scientific experimental-article introductions. In another study, Dudley-Evans & Henderson (1990) uses Swales' (1981) four-move model to examine the evolution and changes of 22 article introductions in Economics from 1891 to 1980. They report that the seven economics introductions written between 1961 and 1980 conform to some but not all of the four moves as described by Swales' (1981) model. More importantly, in a joint research with Najjar in 1987 on 110 research article introductions in Physics (66 introductions) and Educational Psychology (44 introductions), Swales finds a new step in Move 4—'Announcing Principal Findings'—which is not included in his four-move model. He also notes discipline-specific variations as the step occurs regularly in the Physics introductions but rarely in Education Psychology introductions.

As a result, Swales revisited his original 4-move model in 1990. He merged the first two moves which resulted in a 3-move model, also better known as the CARS model (see Appendix 2). The CARS model was considered a general model for describing the move structure of the introduction section of research articles for all disciplines. However, subsequent move-based studies on the introduction section of research articles in other disciplines (for example, Anthony, 1999; Posteguillo, 1999; Samraj, 2002) find that even though other disciplines, to a certain extent, follow the 1990 CARS model, each discipline has its own preferred moves and steps which may be identical to, or different from, the CARS model. For example, Anthony (1999) evaluates how well the 1990 CARS model could be applied to 12 Software Engineering article introductions. His findings suggest that, while the CARS model adequately describes the overall framework of the Software Engineering introductions, some discipline-specific variations are identified because the CARS model does not account for some important steps found in the Software Engineering introductions. For instance, some steps in the CARS model are redundant or rarely used in the software engineering introductions (for example, steps 1-1, 2-1A, 2-1C, 2-1D and 3-1A), while some frequent or obligatory steps in the software engineering

introductions—for instance, 'Classification of definitions and examples' and 'Evaluation of Research'—are absent from the CARS model. Posteguillo (1999), in comparing 40 article introductions in Computer Science with the 1990 CARS model, also reports discipline-specific variations in step occurrence, although the CARS model does seem applicable to the Computer Science introductions. Since Computer Science is a relatively new discipline, certain frequent or obligatory steps in the CARS model—namely, Move 1 Step 3:'Reviewing Items of Previous Research' and Move 2 Step 1A: 'Counter-claiming'—occur less frequently in the Computer Science introductions, while certain steps occur exceptionally frequently—namely, Move 3 Step 2:'Announcing Principle Findings' and Move 3 Step 3:'Indicating RA structure'. Discipline-specific variations are also reported in Samraj (2002) who uses the 1990 CARS model to compare 12 article introductions from Wildlife Behaviour (a relatively established, disciplinary and theoretical field) and 12 article introductions from Conservation Biology (a relatively young, interdisciplinary and applied field) to explore the applicability of the CARS model across different disciplines. Her results show that the article introductions in her corpus do contain the CARS moves. However, the results also reveal discipline-specific variations in the use of moves and steps not only between the CARS model and the two disciplines, but also between the two disciplines. As a result, she modifies the CARS model to reflect her findings; for example, she changes Move 1 Step 3:'Reviewing Items of Previous Research' to a freestanding step which could be embedded or subordinated within any move in the introductions. She adds a new step—'Presenting Positive Justification' (which is found in Wildlife Behaviour introductions)—to Move 2. She also sub-divides two steps—namely, 1-1:'Claiming Centrality' (which occurs more frequently in Conservation Biology introductions) and 2-1B:'Indicating a Gap' into two sub-steps of 'in research' (for Wildlife Behaviour introductions) and 'in the real world' (for Conservation Biology introductions). Furthermore, she adds a new sub-step—'Giving Background Information on Species or Site' (which occurs frequently in Wildlife Behaviour introductions, but is not accounted for in the CARS model)—to step 3-1:'Presenting Goals of Present Research'.

Swales (2004) revisited the CARS model for the second time in 2004, taking account of the new move elements identified and limitations raised by Chu (1996, cited in Swales, 2004), Anthony (1999), Samraj (2002) and Kanoksilapatham (2003, cited in Swales, 2004). He retains

the three moves but makes changes at the step level to better reflect the variations that occur in article introductions in different disciplines. In the 2004 version of the Amended CARS model, the three steps in Move 1 in the 1990 version has been reduced to one, the four steps in Move 2 have been changed to three, and the four steps in Move 3 has been raised to seven (see Appendix 2). Swales (2004: 207) acknowledges that the 1990 version of the CARS model is "perhaps predictably, over-generalised" and needs to be replaced by a "more nuanced" 2004 version of the Amended CARS model. However, the 2004 Amended CARS model is still a general model which has been modified to be applicable to all disciplines. Subsequently, Kanoksilapatham (2011) uses the Swales' (2004) Amended CARS model to analyse 60 article introductions in Civil Engineering. Interestingly, her results are similar to Swales' (2004) model at the move level, but different from the model at the step level. For example, Swales (2004) eliminates the steps in Move 1, but Move 1 in Kanoksilapatham's (2011) Civil Engineering introductions could be realised by the use of three steps which resembled Swales' (1990) CARS model. Another discipline-specific variation is that, while Swales (2004) proposes two possible steps for Move 2, only one step—'Indicating a Gap'—is found in the Civil Engineering introductions. A third discipline-specific variation is found in Move 3 in which two out of seven steps proposed in Swales (2004)—namely, 'Presenting Research Questions or Hypotheses' and 'Definitional Clarifications'—are not found in the Civil Engineering introductions. In addition, two frequent steps in Move 3 in the Civil Engineering introductions—namely, 'Justifying Procedural Decisions' and 'Describing Study Sites'—are not part of the Swales' (2004) model.

Apart from the introduction section, discipline-specific variations are also reported in other sections of research articles examined in previous move-based studies; for example, methods (Swales, 1990, 2004; Bloor, 1999; Al Ali & Holme, 1999; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2006; Peacock, 2011), results (Swales, 1990, 2004; Brett, 1994; Williams, 1999; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Lim, 2010), and discussion (Holmes, 1997; Al Ali & Holme, 1999; Peacock, 2002; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Basturkmen, 2009, 2012; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). These studies provide further evidence that the move structures of methods, results and discussion sections vary from discipline to discipline.

This literature review on the CARS model should not be taken to mean that the CARS model is inadequate to account for the rhetorical structure of article introductions. In fact, without the awareness of the CARS model as a starting point, it would not have been possible to notice the inter-disciplinary commonalities as well as discipline-specific variations among different disciplines. Moreover, of particular interest and relevance is that although the afore-mentioned move-based studies have attempted to modify in various ways the influential CARS model of Swales (1981, 1990, 2004), they retain the concept of Move-Step as central both to their theoretical frameworks and analyses. Furthermore, as Dudley-Evans pointed out as long ago as 1986, Swales' Move-Step analysis and the procedures followed can be readily adapted for analysis of research articles and other types of academic writing. However, the literature review also shows a shift from a general model for all disciplines to a discipline-specific understanding of the rhetorical purposes and expectations of research articles. The above-mentioned discipline-specific variations show that while research articles from different disciplines certainly share some common moves and steps, each discipline also has its own unique moves and steps. This may suggest that the rhetorical structure of research articles is constrained by conventions and expectations of the relevant academic disciplines (Kanoksilapatham, 2007). What can be learnt from the literature review is that discipline-specific variations sufficiently abound to encourage this study to start with a discipline-specific model that may be a starting point against which other disciplines could be compared.

3.3 Process-based approach to data analysis: Academic Literacies

As discussed in Chapter 1, this study uses the methods of both text analysis and interview to examine how disagreement is expressed in TAL articles and why TAL writers disagree in the ways they do. The text-analysis part of this study focuses on product-based approach to data analysis, or genre studies, which has been discussed in the first half of this chapter. The interview part of this study is concerned with process-based approach to data analysis, or academic literacies, which will be discussed in this section.

There are three reasons for reviewing the literature surrounding academic literacies. First, a review of academic discourse is not complete if it does not include academic literacies. Second, academic literacies discusses the importance of disciplinary epistemologies in academic writing.

There is a need to link academic writing to the epistemology of the discipline. Third, academic literacies draws attention to the often hidden exercise of power in the process of publishing articles.

It is necessary to point out here that academic literacies is a very different methodology from the genre approach. The research method is mostly ethnography and case study. The advantage of ethnography and case study is that it provides rich and detailed information of a particular case from the perspective of those being studied. However, it is often not clear whether the example given is typical or atypical. Thus, it can be difficult to generalise the results.

Researchers in academic literacies isolate three influences on the writing process: epistemology, power and identity. They have frequently applied these influences to student experiences, but the influences may be applied to that of established academics as well. Of the three influences, this study will focus on epistemology and power as the most relevant to this study. This section will discuss, first, three models of student writing in higher education, followed by epistemology, and then power.

3.3.1 Overview

Lea & Street (1998, 2006) and Street (2009) point out that, to date, educational research into student writing in higher education in the United Kingdom has been conceptualized through three overlapping main perspectives or models; namely, a study skills model, an academic socialization model and an academic literacies model.

The study skills model focuses on explicit teaching and learning of correct rules of surface features of language or 'atomised skills' (Lea & Street, 1998), 'surface features' (Lea & Street, 1998), 'generic, technical aspects of writing' (Ivanic, 2004), 'surface language features' (Lillis, 2006), 'surface features of text' (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009), such as spelling (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2009), grammar (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2009), simplified notion of structure such as introductions and conclusions (Lillis, 2006), mechanics of citation conventions (Lillis, 2006), syntax (Street, 2009), and punctuation (Street, 2009). This first model is of the view that students can transfer these generic skills from one context to another (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Ivanic, 2004; Lillis, 2006). It has been criticized

for its 'crudity' (Lea & Street, 1998), 'insensitivity' (Lea & Street, 1998), assumed transparency in relation to language (Lillis, 2006), and assumed transmission in relation to pedagogy (Lillis, 2006).

The academic socialization model takes account of study skills but broadens the study skills model to pay attention to disciplinary and subject-based discourses and genres (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Ivanic, 2004; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2009). This second model is of the view that students need to identify and be explicitly inducted into the features and requirements of discourses and genres which are valued by members of a particular disciplinary or subject area community into which they are entering (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Ivanic, 2004; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2009). However, the academic socialization model has been criticized for treating writing as 'homogeneous' (Lea & Street, 1998), 'transparent' (Lea & Street, 1998) and 'stable' (Lea & Street, 2006). The model is also criticized for not adequately taking a wider institutional approach to view writing against a background of institutional regulations and procedure, epistemological issues of knowledge construction in different disciplines, relationships of power and authority among institution, tutors and students, as well as student's identity as writer (Lea & Street, 1998; Street, 2009).

The academic literacies model has been developed from the theoretical framework of New Literacy Studies by Lea and Street (1998) in the United Kingdom to expand both the study skills model and academic socialization model to take account of broader issues such as epistemology (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Ivanic, 2004; Street, 2009), power relations (Ivanic, 2004; Lillis, 2006; Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009), and identity (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006; Ivanic, 2004; Ivanic & Lea, 2006; Lillis, 2006; Street, 2009). It moves the focus away from texts towards many previously invisible or ignored aspects of academic writing; for example, epistemology, power relations and identity which are open to change and contestation. It considers issues of student writing in higher education at individual, disciplinary and institutional levels. This model is of the view that students are required to switch practices from one setting to another. Hence, students need to use forms of writing appropriate to each setting and handle the social meanings and identities that each setting evokes (Lea & Street, 1998). The academic literacies model is viewed as 'heterogeneous' (Ivanic, 2004), 'complex' (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009), 'dynamic' (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009), 'nuanced' (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009), and

'situated' (Lea & Street, 2006; Street, 2009). It focuses not solely on written texts but also on observation of the practices surrounding the production of texts and participants' perspectives on the texts and practices.

The academic literacies model is useful for this study in inspiring a broader perspective in discussing the interview results in Chapter 6. It helps to foreground some aspects to academic writing which cannot be covered by the genre approach. Some insights provided by the academic literacies approach are useful and helpful to understand and interpret the interview data of this study at two aspects—epistemology and power.

3.3.2 Epistemology

An important insight provided by the academic literacies model is the notion of epistemology, conceived of implicit and discipline-specific ways of writing knowledge. Epistemology refers to writing academic knowledge in specific ways within particular courses (Lea & Street, 1998). Bryman (2001: 27) provides a similar definition: "an epistemological issue concerns the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline". B.V. Street (personal communication, November 21, 2013) has pointed out that positivism and interpretivism are two examples of epistemological differences from different subjects which then have implications for, in this case, writing. Positivism, as Bryman (2001) explained, is an epistemological position which advocates that the social world can and should be studied according to the same principles, methods, procedures and ethos as the natural sciences. Interpretivism, on the other hand, opposes the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of the social world because the subject matter of the social sciences—people and their institutions—is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences. Writers who subscribe to interpretivism share a view that the social world should be studied with different research methods and should emphasise interpretation or understanding of human action, rather than explanation of human action which is the emphasis of a positivist approach to the social sciences.

Epistemology is thus concerned with deeper issues of how to write specific course-based knowledge for a particular field of study (Lea & Street, 1998). Epistemology embeds implicit writing expectations which include underlying assumptions about the nature of writing and

presuppositions about what constitute disciplinary knowledge (Lea & Street, 1998; Lea & Street, 1999; Lillis & Turner, 2001). However, academic tutors frequently treat these academic writing conventions as if they are self-evident, transparent, 'common sense', generic and transferable (Lea & Street, 1998, 1999; Lillis & Turner, 2001). In practice, these implicit writing expectations are frequently not made explicit and clear. This can lead to problems and difficulties for academics and students alike around writing requirements of specific courses (Lea & Street, 1998, 1999). Lea & Street's (1998) study shows that wordings such as 'argument' and 'structure', for example, can often signal different epistemological contrasts or writing expectations within and across different disciplines. They give a case study of a first-year history student who was writing in both history and anthropology. These two disciplines were expected to be rather similar to one another; however, unexpectedly, a way of structuring and arguing that placed well in history was heavily criticised by anthropology. In the case study, the history student encountered a strikingly different response from his tutors when he used a similar format to write a history essay and an anthropology essay during the same period in his first year of study. The student emphasized content and factual information in his history essay and received positive feedback and excellent grades. However, when he used much the same format for his anthropology essay, he received strong criticism about the lack of structure and argument in his essay. Hence, the anthropology tutor strongly suggested that the student make enquiries about essay-writing clinics for his writing problems. Lea & Street suggest that, although the anthropology tutor expressed it as if it was about writing problems, the actual problem is that different disciplines have different epistemologies. The way the student wrote was a consequence of the way an argument is constructed in history as opposed to anthropology. As Lea & Street (1998) say, "The anthropology tutor's comments, however, are couched in terms of writing problems, so such epistemological presupposition regarding academic disciplines is hidden beneath more technical attention to supposedly generic features of 'academic writing'." Although the aim of Lea & Street's (1998) study focuses on students' struggles around different writing requirements among tutors, their research also shows that different understandings and interpretations of the concepts of 'structure' and 'argument' exist among academics in different disciplines and fields of study.

The linguistic and structural devices which may indicate structure and argument in one field of study, or indeed for one individual tutor, may not appear so to another tutor in a different course, field of study or discipline. Lea & Street (1998) also mention that academic tutors, in different courses and even within the same courses, have conflicting opinions about when or if it is appropriate to use many different writing conventions, such as first person pronoun or thesis statement, in a student essay. In other words, there are implicit epistemological issues associated with knowledge in different courses, fields of study and disciplines. Perhaps a tutor and a student, who were interviewed in Lea & Street's (1998: 163-164) research, summed up this issue best in the following quotations,

> *"I know a good essay when I see it but I cannot describe how to write it."* (Tutor)

> *"The thing I'm finding most difficult in my first term here is moving from subject to subject and knowing how you're meant to write in each one. I'm really aware of writing for a particular tutor as well as for a particular subject. Everybody seems to want something different."* (Student)

Hence, epistemology is sometimes described as 'the rules of the game for writing in higher education' (Lea & Street, 1998; Lillis, 2006), 'the taken-for-granted assumptions about academic conventions' (Lillis & Turner, 2001), 'insider knowledge' (Lillis, 2001, 2006), 'institutional practice of mystery' (Lillis, 2001), 'dominant yet mysterious conventions' (Lillis, 2006) or 'hidden features' (Street, 2009).

The academic literacies model provides a useful lead for this study to follow—different discipline-specific writing practices (Lea & Street, 1998, 1999; Lillis, 2003, 2006; Lillis & Scott, 2007). As Lea & Street's study shows, while there are similarities, there are also different practices of writing within and across different disciplines. Academic knowledge is embedded in epistemological frameworks which are frequently discipline specific. Students struggle with and therefore need to be aware of the different practices and implicit ways of writing knowledge of different texts in different academic contexts within and across different disciplines. Hence, it can be assumed that what may seem to be an appropriate way of constructing disagreement in one particular discipline may not appear so to another. This perspective helps this study to

recognise the importance of a discipline-specific approach and thus to investigate the writing practices of only one specific discipline—Theoretical and Applied Linguistics.

Moreover, this study can be seen as a response to the urge of academic literacies to make explicit what is implicit (Lea & Street, 1998, 1999, 2006; Lillis & Turner, 2001; Street, 2009). As mentioned above, Lea & Street's (1998) research shows that the epistemological requirements in disciplines are frequently left implicit. It is therefore not surprising that students frequently struggle to understand and interpret the implicit writing requirements in their own courses, fields of study and disciplines. Hence, Lea & Street stress the importance of making explicit the disciplinary writing requirements. In addition, Street's (2009) study also demonstrates and highlights the importance of making explicit a number of hidden features and their criteria, including voice or stance—of which disagreement is an important component—to students. Hence, this study attempts to respond to this call, in the hopes that less experienced writers would be more aware of how experienced writers disagree in research articles to enable or empower them to be more effectively creative in using disagreement strategies when they are more aware of their disciplinary discourse expectations.

This study can also be seen as a response to the academic literacies' notable more recent shift of focus away from students' writing towards academic tutors' own writing and practices (Lea & Street, 2006; Lillis & Scott, 2007). Lea & Street (2006), for example, point out the importance of examining the writing practices of academic tutors themselves so as to explore other literacies across academic contexts and not just students' writing. This approach also enables the academic tutors to reflect upon their own writing and the ways in which their subject areas are constructed in academic contexts. Moreover, Lillis & Scott (2007) also point out a growing interest in studying the writing practices of academics as professional writers. As the published research article is taken by many students as an implicit model for the type of writing they aspire to produce, it is important to understand better what may be at stake for professional writers producing such texts to help make explicit to students the contemporary disciplinary practices and their associated rhetorical expectations.

3.3.3 Power

The issues of epistemology are of particular relevance to students who are novices in the discipline and may need to address more than one discipline. Established academics, on the other hand, may be expected to have absorbed the epistemology of their own discipline. This can be seen from Lea & Street's (1998, 1999, 2006) studies that they have fully absorbed but do not articulate it. However, other aspects of academic literacies are relevant to the TAL authors, in particular the concept of power because some of the TAL authors talked about power of reviewers in the interviews. Chapter 6 will demonstrate that the TAL authors are conscious of the power differentials between manuscript reviewers and themselves as a writer.

The 'publish or perish' environment in academia creates high publication demands. In many academic institutions worldwide, the rewards for publications in major peer-reviewed journals may include prestige (Flowerdew, 1999; Lillis & Curry, 2006), reputation (Lillis & Curry, 2006), promotion (Flowerdew, 2000; Curry & Lillis, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2006), research grants (Curry & Lillis, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2006), and salary bonuses (Curry & Lillis, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2006). However, the rate of acceptance for submitted papers to major peer-reviewed journals is low. McKay (2003), for example, reports that only approximately ten percent (10%) of submitted manuscripts are eventually published in *TESOL Quarterly*. This places journal editors and manuscript reviewers who make and influence publication decisions in a powerful position. Journal editors and reviewers are gatekeepers who decide what will and will not be published. Academics are required to read and adhere to the 'Instructions to Writers', 'Guide for Writers', 'Notes to Contributors' or 'Writer Guidelines and Policies' which are part and parcel of journals' submission criteria prior to submission of their papers for publication. Primary TAL research journals such as *Applied Linguistics*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *Journal of English for Specific Purposes* operate single-blind or double-blind peer review policies to screen, evaluate, comment, validate, confirm and disseminate new research in the fields. Myers (1985), Flowerdew (2000, 2001, 2007) and Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) have discussed the power and influence of editors and reviewers from a third-person's or an analyst's perspective. In particular, Flowerdew (2001) and Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) investigate publishing process of academics in second language context. There is also considerable work, not within the context of academic literacies, which has discussed the power and influence of editors and reviewers from a first-person's viewpoint—

an editor's (for example, McKay, 2003; Leki, 2003) or an author's (for example, Bhatia, 2001b; Braine 2003) viewpoint. In addition, there is also work on reviewers' reports and authors' letters of response (Gosden, 2001; Belcher, 2007).

This section will review, firstly, research about power of editors (for example, McKay, 2003; Belcher, 2007), secondly research about power of reviewers (for example, Flowerdew, 2001; Gosden, 2001; Leki, 2003; Braine, 2003; Belcher, 2007), thirdly research which describe the power of editors and reviewers as negative (for example, Myers, 1985; Lillis & Curry, 2006, 2010), fourthly research which describe the power of editors and reviewers as positive (for example, Flowerdew, 2000, 2007), and finally authors' options for response (for example, Bhatia, 2001b; Gosden, 2001; Braine, 2003; McKay, 2003; Leki, 2003).

3.3.3.1 Power of editors

Journal editors' power is exercised by the choice of reviewers and by choosing whether to send a manuscript for review. Editors appoint reviewers to evaluate manuscripts and, if they so wish, suggest corrections to the manuscripts and require that authors meet the standards of their discipline. Editors also have the responsibility to ensure fairness and impartiality in the peer review process so that the reviewers open the gate to the submissions that do meet the high standards of research, and close to those that do not.

McKay (2003) writes an article on her reminiscences as an editor of *TESOL Quarterly*. She provides further insights, from an editor's perspective, into the power relations between and among editors, reviewers and authors. McKay argues that, as her experience as an editor demonstrates, an editor does not have sole discretion in making a publication decision. She gives many examples to show that there are many internal constraints which reduce the power of an editor. However, McKay's examples also show that the role of editor is influenced by and, at the same time, exerts influence on many publication decisions. For example, most major policy decisions regarding *TESOL Quarterly* are made by an editorial board which consists of board members and editor. However, it is the editor who typically chooses certain board members to serve for a specified time. Second, although formulating policies for *TESOL Quarterly* is undertaken by the board members, McKay also admits that she seeks to play an active or advocate role in policy formation. More relevantly, while editors' final publication decisions are

usually guided by the reviewers' comments, as McKay (2003) and also Belcher (2007) have pointed out, it is an editor's responsibility to select appropriate reviewers for a particular manuscript. At times, some reviewers are members of opposing theoretical or methodological camps as the authors. At other times, some reviewers are rivals in the same research area as the authors. Hence, if a particular manuscript is sent to a particular reviewer, it might be more difficult for some reviewers to write an objective review.

Belcher (2007) examines, also from a journal editor's perspective, submission histories of accepted and rejected manuscripts submitted to her journal—*ESPJ* (the journal of *English for Specific Purposes*). Belcher suggests that journal editors are often perceived as facilitators or obstacles on the path to publication as they solicit and interpret reviews and make the final decision about the status of the submission. The power of editor is perhaps more evident in McKay's (2003) description of each step of the publishing process which involves making decisions on accepting, reviewing, editing or rejecting a manuscript. The power of journal editor is nicely encapsulated in McKay's (2003: 121) own words below:

> "*Making decisions regarding what would be published and what direction the journal would take was empowering in the sense that I felt I had personal power over a complex publication process. At the same time, I realized that deciding who would be on the board, what would be the lead article in an issue, and who would review a particular manuscript affected not only the overall effectiveness of the journal but also personal lives.*"

3.3.3.2 Power of reviewers

With regards to the power and influence of reviewers, reviewers advise editors who make decisions to accept or reject a particular manuscript. Hence, dissemination of research findings through professional journals is determined to a large extent by a peer review process. Flowerdew (2001) offers some insights into the workings of power relations between editors and reviewers. He interviews editors of 12 leading international journals in applied linguistics and English language teaching. The editors he interviews say that reviewers are important gatekeepers of the journals because decisions on acceptance or rejection are dependent on the reviewers. In another study, Leki (2003) also made a similar argument,

> "*...in many ways reviewers are the real arbiters of a manuscript's success because editors may simply not be knowledgeable enough about a particular subfield of the discipline to fully evaluate the quality of a submission*".

Reviewers exert power by giving comments on and requiring changes to submitted manuscripts. As Braine (2003) notes, reviewers are selected to judge the quality of manuscripts, and provide authors with feedback as to the rationale for their assessment of the manuscripts. The kind of feedback which reviewers give to authors plays a key role not only in how successful authors will be in their revision process, but also in the quality of articles which will be published in a journal. The literature on the power and influence of reviewers has focused a great deal on different types of changes that the reviewers require to make to submitted manuscripts (for example, Myers, 1985; Gosden, 2001; Lillis & Curry, 2006, 2010; Belcher, 2007). Gosden (2001) delves into the range of comments made by reviewers in their reports in a text analysis of 40 reviewers' reports. The reviewers' reports are submitted to a Letters journal in chemical physics whose advisory editorial board is based in Japan. Gosden classifies the reviewers' comments into what he calls 'ideational' comments (including technical detail) and 'interactional' comments (including discussion, claims and references). His results showed that the reviewers' comments orient more frequently towards interactional concerns; for example, the reviewers ask the authors to clarify explanations or disagree with the strength of the authors' knowledge claims. Hence, Gosden's ideational/interactional distinction indicates that the reviewers more frequently comment on the way the research has been written, rather than the content of the research. This is rather unexpected as reviewers in science might be expected to mostly critique the content of research, rather than the way the research is written.

Belcher (2007) would appear to agree, although she does not explicitly refer to Gosden (2001). She also examines the types and frequency of reviewers' comments. Belcher, as a co-editor of *ESPJ* (the journal of *English for Specific Purposes*), provides a behind-the-scene perspective on the journal's submission process. She collects and analyses three rejected submissions from off-networked EIL (English as an International Language) authors, three accepted EIL papers, and three rejected EL (English Language) submissions from networked EL authors (Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States). Her results show that most rejected papers, whether authored by EL or EIL scholars, networked or off-networked, share similar shortcomings such as

lack of knowledge or understanding of relevant topics, relevant research literature, expected research methods, genre conventions, and journal audience expectations. Of the shortcomings mentioned in Belcher's (2007) study, citing relevant research literature, following expected genre conventions and meeting journal audience expectations are related to the way the research is written. Hence, Gosden (2001) and Belcher (2007) both concur that most of the comments reviewers make are related to the way the research is written, rather than the content of the research. This is of particular relevance to this study as this study is concerned with how disagreement is written in the TAL articles.

Of the different types of reviewers' comments discussed in Gosden (2001) and Belcher (2007), reducing the strength of knowledge claim is of particular importance to an author. This specific aspect of academic writing which impinges on the very heart of the research being done is a subject of research by Myers (1985) who delves into the issue of knowledge claim and the power of journal editors and manuscript reviewers over the type of claim being made by an author. He describes in detail the publishing process of two well-established biologists (Bloch and Crews) at the University of Texas. In his text-based ethnographic study (which includes various drafts and manuscripts of the research articles, interviews with the authors, correspondence and feedback between the authors, editors and reviewers), Myers notes a tension in the negotiation over the status of the authors' claims among the journal editors, manuscript reviewers and authors. In general, on the one hand, the authors—Bloch and Crews—started by making higher-level claims for the importance of their new findings. On the other hand, the reviewers and editors demanded that the authors lower their knowledge claims which took the authors' new findings as part of the existing body of knowledge produced by the community. The tension was finally resolved in the compromises made by the authors that allowed their articles to appear in print. At the editors' and reviewers' requests, the numerous revisions of Bloch's and Crews' articles were extremely complex, ranging from minor changes, such as shifting of a comma or an adjective, to massive cuts and additions, as well as changing the form of the article (and changing thus the status of the knowledge claims). In exchange for publication, both Bloch and Crews had to alter their claims by choosing a somewhat more limited claim, and cutting their higher-level claims in their revisions. This research, however, only examines the point of view of the authors.

3.3.3.3 Research describing the power of editors and reviewers as negative

Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) presents a similar case study in which an editor changed an author's knowledge claim. The intervention of the editor in this case is perceived as negative. Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) is perhaps one of the few studies within the context of academic literacies which talks about unequal status and power between and among journal editors, manuscript reviewers and (non-native-English-speaking) authors. They adopt a text-oriented ethnographic approach (which includes drafts and a final version of a research article, interviews with main author, correspondence and feedback from brokers) to investigate the academic writing and publishing practices of experienced academics (for example, professors and associated professors) working in psychology and education outside of Anglophone centre contexts (for example, Hungary, Slovakia, Spain and Portugal). Their aim is to track the impact of different literacy brokers and changes from early drafts through to publication in international journals. 'Literacy brokers' is a term coined by Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) to refer to a number of mediators who are involved in the production of academic texts, and influence the texts in different ways. Most of the literacy brokers in Lillis & Curry's (2006, 2010) study are academic brokers such as journal editors and manuscript reviewers. These editors and reviewers occupy a powerful position to make specific changes to manuscripts and/or suggesting or requiring specific changes be made to manuscripts. The editors and reviewers' suggestions vary from sentence-level correction to minor and major shifts in content and knowledge claims. Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) present one case study in which an editor can demand a change that is as fundamental as whether an article presents a new knowledge or confirms existing knowledge. In this specific case study, at the editor's insistence, a statistician was added to the number of authors of the article. As a result of this, the main knowledge claim of the article changed from a new contribution to knowledge (i.e. signalling the difference between the study's findings and a key previous study) to a confirmation of existing knowledge (i.e. confirming the findings of the previous study). In this case study, Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) appear to make the assumption that the intervention of the editor in the author's work is a negative influence when they describe how the whole epistemic status of the article changed as a consequent of the editor's intervention.

3.3.3.4 Research describing the power of editors and reviewers as positive

On the other hand, Flowerdew (2000, 2007) argues that the intervention of editor and reviewer can be positive. He reports a case study of a young Hong Kong EAL scholar's—pseudonym Oliver—process in publishing an article in an English-medium international journal in mass communication. Flowerdew also adopts a text-oriented ethnographic approach which includes various drafts and the final version of Oliver's published article, in-depth interviews and email communication with Oliver, correspondence and feedback from Oliver's editors and reviewers. In reporting the process Oliver went through in writing and publishing his article, Flowerdew also describes in detail different roles and power relations between Oliver and his reviewer, journal editor and in-house copy editor. The reviewer played a crucial role in this case because the reviewer was able to envision a publishable article in Oliver's initial manuscript which contained "second language mistakes that interfere with clarity and obscure meaning" (Flowerdew, 2000: 137 and 145). The reviewer gave positive comments in general and urged the journal editor to publish Oliver's article. The journal editor then asked an assistant editor to contact Oliver. The assistant editor did a drastic editing by cutting Oliver's manuscript from 43 pages to 29, removed entire paragraphs and rewrote nearly every sentence. The assistant editor made not only linguistic-stylistic and organisational-structural changes, but also led Oliver to adapt the content and emphasise certain aspects of his article to suit the priorities and disciplinary orientation of the journal. In the end, Oliver achieved publication of his article. Flowerdew (2000, 2007) describes the intervention of editor and reviewers in positive terms as he talks about the editor and reviewers as being helpful in assisting Oliver to improve his paper to a standard where it could be published.

3.3.3.5 Authors' options for response

In addition to describing the power exerted by editors and reviewers, a number of researchers (Myers, 1985; Flowerdew, 2000, 2007; Gosden, 2001; Bhatia, 2001b; Braine, 2003; Leki, 2003; McKay, 2003; Lillis & Curry, 2006, 2010) have indicated ways in which authors might respond to editors and reviewers. These responses might be described as representing four choices: compliance, resistance, complaint or withdrawal. First, authors could comply wholly, largely or partially by revising their manuscripts following all, many or some or the reviewers' criticisms. Second, authors could resist wholly, largely or partially by challenging all, many or some of the

reviewers' criticisms. Third, authors could complain if they are not pleased with aspects of a review they have received. McKay (2003) reminds that *TESOL Quarterly*, for example, has a procedure for authors to challenge an editor's decision, and present their grievances and complaints to the TESOL executive board. McKay also suggests that when authors question a decision which is made regarding their manuscript, they can initially write to the editor directly to register their complaint, and then, if they still feel that they have not been treated fairly, they can contact the TESOL executive board. Fourth, authors could withdraw their manuscripts by not responding to the reviewers' criticisms, and perhaps submit their manuscripts to another journal. However, should the authors choose to resubmit their manuscripts for publication, it is important that they know when and how to comply with the requested changes, and where appropriate, to resist because unsatisfactory revision of manuscripts will be detrimental to the continued successful engagement among authors, editors and reviewers. In almost all cases of resubmission, authors are expected to address the reviewers' specific criticisms in their revised manuscripts. Even if editors do not wholly agree with the reviewers' criticisms, they will not expect the authors to ignore the reviewers' concerns without providing good reasons.

Most authors would choose to comply and revise their manuscripts to the satisfaction of the editors and reviewers, as in the case studies reported in Myers (1985), Flowerdew (2000, 2007), Braine (2003), Leki (2003) and Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010). In Gosden's (2001) text analysis, his results shows that, in the manuscripts initially marked 'accept with revisions', all authors complied fully with reviewers' suggestions to make their manuscripts more acceptable for publication. The authors not only complied, but also indicated their degree of compliance by itemising the changes they had made to demonstrate that they complied with every single requirement of the reviewers. Gosden analyses 40 authors' point-by-point replies to their reviewers' comments to examine how conflict of opinion between authors and reviewers are handled. In the replies, their opening and closing remarks typically indicated that the authors had followed most or all the suggested changes. In the numbered point-by-point replies, the authors typically itematised the changes which had been made to enable the editors and reviewers to check and decide whether their manuscripts were revised to the satisfaction of the editors and reviewers. For example, the authors indicated that they had corrected an error which had been pointed out, answered the reviewers' direct or implied questions, made their

explanations clearer for readers, downgraded their knowledge claims, and/or added or corrected references as suggested by the reviewers. These authors' point-by-point replies indicate the care with which they demonstrate that they have complied with every one of the reviewers' comments.

Leki (2003), for example, gives a first-hand account of an author's journey towards compliance. Leki tried submission to three journals but her manuscript was not accepted. However, after she had complied with the comments of the first journal's reviewers, the manuscript was eventually published. As editor of *JSLW* (the Journal of Second Language Writing), Leki (2003) describes her own publishing experience as an author as "an obstacle course, one strewn with a variety of difficulties for each of those involved in any of the several roles that tie people together in what is finally a necessarily collective enterprise. It may be gratifying at times and at times bruising…". Leki (2003) also notes that the issues of power, privilege, and control are inherent in the publishing enterprise.

On the other hand, there are also a few cases of resistance reported where articles are published with the authors not making the required changes; for example, Braine (2003) and Bhatia (2001b) which will be reported in the following. Braine (2003) provides a rare first-person account of an author's own experience and process of academic article publication from conception, composition, selections of journals for submission, negotiations with editors and manuscript reviewers, decisions to revise or not, and finally, acceptance and publication. Braine's dual point of view as an author and as an editor of *AJELT* (The Asian Journal of English Language Teaching) allows him unique perspective. Interestingly, his experience as an editor still did not preclude him from the affective response to receiving negative reviews. Braine (2003: 105), for example, describes academic publication as "baffling and frustrating". It took him four years and four submission attempts to four journals to publish an unconventional manuscript. Within his narration, Braine reflects on his negotiations with the journal editor and reviewers of the fourth journal. There were many emails backwards and forwards between the editor and Braine, in all of which Braine was arguing his point. As a result of the intervention on the part of the editor, Braine resubmitted a slightly revised manuscript and addressed one of the reviewers directly to explain why he was unable to respond to some of the queries and clarify some misunderstandings the reviewer had regarding his role in the study. In the end, the

reviewer acquiesced and suggested a few minor changes, instead. Eventually, Braine's manuscript was published. Braine's personal experience suggests that someone familiar with the system can persuade an editor not to accept the reviewers' views and can actually persuade the reviewers to back down.

This experience is not restricted to experienced academics because Bhatia (2001b) was a novice EIL author when he succeeded in publishing an article without making some changes required by an editor. Bhatia recounted that, very early in his academic career, he sent one of his initial articles to one of the most prestigious journals in the field. One of the major contributions he was making in the article was seen by the editor to be inappropriate because of the use of a term which was not available in any of the English language dictionaries. He was offered a few alternatives to replace it, but he felt that none of the suggestions would do justice to the claims he was trying to make. His choice was either to accept and change as suggested by the editor, or risk losing the opportunity of almost-certain publication in a very prestigious journal for a new author. Several of his colleagues and superiors advised him to accept the changes; however, he took the risk and insisted on keeping the particular term. He wrote a very lengthy and detailed explanation in support of his decision not to accept the change suggested by the editor. In the end, the editor accepted his argument and withdrew the objection originally raised. Bhatia recalls that the experience gives him confidence and encouragement in his development as an academic writer at an early stage of his academic career.

The notion of power seems straightforward—journal editors and manuscript reviewers have gatekeeping power. Myers (1985), Flowerdew (2000, 2001, 2007), Gosden (2001), Leki (2003), Braine (2003), McKay (2003), Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010), and Belcher (2007) have discussed in detail how the power of editors and reviewers is exercised. The gatekeeping power of editors and reviewers is widely accepted; however, deciding whether the intervention of editors and reviewers is positive or negative is by no means easy. The authors in the case studies discussed by Myers (1985), Flowerdew (2000, 2007) and Lillis & Curry (2006, 2010) have all achieved publication of their articles. However, Flowerdew describes his case study as an example of editors and reviewers exercising power to assist an author to achieve a positive outcome, while Myers and Lillis & Curry describe their case studies as examples of editors and reviewers exercising power to make changes which are against the authors' perceived self-interests.

Hence, there seems to be a tension when they discuss the roles of editors and reviewers. This is a complicated issue because editors and reviewers would presumably argue that peer review process is important in ensuring the required standards and quality of research that is published in journals, although it probably is not as non-subjective as it is supposed to be.

The academic literacies model is useful for this study to discuss some results in Chapter 6 in relation to power. When writing research articles for publication, academics need to be concerned about the power relations of their disciplinary community, readers, researchers they agree or disagree with, journal editors, manuscript reviewers, and the implications these may have on their own writing. The power of reviewers and editors has been widely reported. However, this study also concerns the power differential between researchers themselves, about which little is said in the literature. It is useful to be reminded, however, of the importance of power to the research process.

3.4 Chapter summary

In summary, the literature review provides some findings which can be implemented into methods and procedure to investigate TAL disagreement. The review on genre studies shows that the notion of Move-Step, move analysis procedure, and discipline-specific approach can be adapted for the text analysis in this study. The literature review also suggests that a more reliable method to identify moves and steps is mainly through content and author's corroboration, and partly through linguistic signals. Moreover, this study can also use the lens of academic literacies in terms of discipline-specific epistemology and power of editors and reviewers to interpret the interview data in this study.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, will discuss in detail how the findings presented in this chapter, Chapter 3, and Chapter 2 can be implemented into methods and procedure to investigate TAL disagreement.

Chapter 4

METHODS

4.1 Chapter introduction

As discussed in Chapters 1 and 3, this study aims to answer two general research questions: (1) How is disagreement with named researchers expressed typically in the TAL articles? (2) Why do the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do? In other words, this study examines not only the *how*, but also the *why* of the TAL disagreement moves. Hence, the research methodology of this study includes two main approaches to answer the two research questions: text analysis and interview. The answer to the first research question will be sought through text analysis, as outlined in the first half of this chapter. To answer the first research question, or to describe how disagreement with named researchers is expressed typically in the TAL articles, it is necessary to analyse the internal structure of a TAL disagreement instance. Hence, this chapter will explain the approach to move analysis taken in this study. Text analysis also lays the foundation for the second half of this chapter, which describes the interview procedure. To answer the second research question, interviews with the TAL authors were carried out. The purpose was to corroborate the text analysis and to learn their reasons for the disagreement moves and steps which they employed. Hence, this study combines the advantages of both text analysis and interview to provide meaningful insight into product as well as process. The issue of how generalizable the findings are will be discussed in Chapter 7.

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section, Section 4.2, describes the pilot study which was helpful for guiding the methodological design and procedures of the main study. The second section, Section 4.3, describes the corpus and methodology of text analysis in the main study, detailing the approaches taken to identify the research articles, disagreement instances, disagreement moves and steps. The third section, Section 4.4, describes the corpus and methodology of interview in the main study.

4.2 Pilot study

Before embarking on the main study reported in this study, a pilot study was undertaken on three

TAL articles (coded PS1-3). The pilot study was part of the development of a research method that would achieve an analysis of TAL disagreement instances in preparation for the main study. Following Holmes' (1982) and Hyland's (1996, 1998, 2001) observations that boosters are often used to enhance agreement and hedges are often used to mitigate disagreement, some interview questions were also trialled with the three authors of PS1-3 articles. However, it was quickly found that boosters and hedges were not sufficient to fully explain how the authors expressed agreement and disagreement in the TAL articles. This approach failed to take into account other possible discourse strategies which needed addressing. Moreover, the interview questions at this point only asked about boosters and hedges which did not take the pilot study far in understanding the complexities of agreement and disagreement. Hence, the identification of boosters and hedges was dropped as a methodology for this study.

However, it had been observed that where agreement and disagreement were successfully identified, these instances followed consistent organisational patterns. As a consequence, the focus of the pilot study was changed to investigate how agreement and disagreement instances were structured in PS1-3 articles first and then eight new TAL articles (PS4-11). Moreover, the eight authors of PS4-11 articles were also interviewed about questions related to agreement and disagreement strategies and functions. However, the large amount of both agreement and disagreement data and time constraints had precluded an in-depth study of the agreement instances. Hence, it was decided to narrow the scope of research to focus only on disagreement instances. As a result, some interview questions were deleted to reduce redundant answers, some questions were rephrased to elicit relevant answers, and some unfamiliar terminology was discarded from the questions (such as 'pre-disagreement strategy' and 'post-disagreement strategy'). In short, as a result of the pilot study, the interview questions were re-designed to focus specifically on how and why the TAL authors used certain disagreement patterns and strategies. This also formed the foundation for the interview questions in the main study.

The pilot interviews with the TAL authors generated other useful information. One of the insights gained from the interviews was, when the TAL authors were uncertain whether a specific instance identified in their articles expressed disagreement, it was useful to use the definition of disagreement mentioned in Section 2.4.1. Another was that the choice of the TAL articles should be left to the authors themselves. The authors were best placed to know when they had disagreed

with others. Allowing them to recommend articles would ensure that the TAL articles which were included in this study did contain disagreement instances. Moreover, in the interviews, the TAL authors could be asked specific and text-based questions which only they as the writers could answer. Thus, as a result of the pilot study, only articles written by authors who could be contacted either through email or as interviewees were selected for text analysis. Although this necessarily limited the number of articles which could be analysed, it did ensure that text analysis could be corroborated by the authors.

An important finding in the pilot study was that a number of disagreement instances seemed to contain three parts: beginnings, middles and endings. Moreover, when the TAL authors were asked in the interviews how they usually phrased or structured their disagreement, they talked about how they presented a claim which they were disagreeing with first (pre-disagreement component), then argued against the claim (core-disagreement component) and gave some evidence against the claim (post-disagreement component). Furthermore, when the TAL authors were asked where they found they expressed disagreement most in their own disagreement instances, they pointed to the sections which were classified as core-disagreement. This in turn suggested that the whole disagreement instances could be composed of a set of pre-, core- and post-disagreement components, which coincided with Stadler's (2006) speech-act based coding scheme for verbal disagreement. Another important finding—which also laid the basic groundwork for the subsequent development of a move-based model in the main study—was that a number of disagreement strategies identified from different spoken and written contexts in previous disagreement studies were also found to be present in the TAL disagreement instances (for example, 'Opposed Claim', 'Proposed Claim', 'Direct Disagreement', 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction', 'Contradiction', 'Counterclaim', ' Problematisation', 'Question', 'Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party', and 'Example'). Hence, as a result of the pilot study, the framework of analysing the TAL disagreement instances using Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) Move-Step concept and Stadler's (2006) Pre-, Core- and Post-disagreement category was developed to explain the internal structure of TAL disagreement instances for the reasons given in Section 4.3.4. This was successfully tested on five TAL articles (MS6, MS7, MS14, MS15 and MS16) from the pilot study, which were later included in the main study. Hence, this led to further analysis of 11 additional TAL articles and eight interviews in the main study.

The pilot study reinforced the usefulness of text analysis and interview as a data collection and analysis instrument in the main study. It strongly influenced the collection of data for analysis, as well as the analytical framework to be adopted and interview questions themselves. The next section, Section 4.3, describes the method of data collection and text analysis.

4.3 Text analysis

This section will begin by explaining how TAL articles were identified, then explaining how ethics approval for the TAL articles was obtained, how disagreement instances were identified, and then how disagreement moves and steps were identified.

4.3.1 Identifying TAL (Theoretical and Applied Linguistics) articles

The aim in data collection was to identify as many instances of disagreement as possible within as many articles in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics as possible that meet the following criteria. The criteria were designed to ensure expertise, accessibility and homogeneity.

1) The articles had to be published in refereed journals or professional books, as opposed to less formal publications such as textbooks or popular articles, for the following three reasons. First, published research articles could provide enough non-elicited written instances of disagreement for move analysis. As the purpose of this study was to investigate what theoretical and applied linguists actually wrote in real academic situations, authentic data was collected in real academic setting to establish a baseline of native speaker data which provides accurate representation of actual language in use. Second, refereed research articles and published books are usually taken by many beginning research students, junior researchers and less experienced authors as a model for the type of writing they aspire to produce. Books and research articles in English have become key genres used by many academic disciplines as one of the main channels for the circulation and ratification of knowledge and research discoveries (Peacock, 2002, 2011; Swales, 2004; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2011). The ability to read and write research articles in English is thus crucial for academic success in many disciplines. The third reason was that the research articles were publicly accessible and readily available so access to data was less of a problem.

2) The articles had to be in the discipline of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics. Many previous move-based studies (for example, to mention but a few, Crookes, 1986; Swales, 1990, 2004;

Bhatia, 1993; Anthony, 1999; Posteguillo, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Peacock, 2002, 2011; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2011) have shown that discipline-specific variations have discernible influences on the internal structure of moves and steps, as discussed in Section 3.2.3. Research article sections examined in previous move-based studies—for example, introduction, methods, results and discussion—from different disciplines shared some common moves and steps, but each discipline also had its own unique moves and steps. Hence, this study limited the academic setting to Theoretical and Applied Linguistics in order to control for possible discipline-specific variations and to give a clear focus to this study. Moreover, this specific discipline was chosen because Theoretical and Applied Linguistics is my own field of study. My general knowledge about some topics in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics and the content of some TAL articles provided the advantage of being able to analyse the TAL articles and identify disagreement instances from the contexts. Furthermore, my familiarity with some ongoing debates in this field could also be used to conduct semi-structured interviews with the TAL authors and shape the questions considered to be important to address during the interviews.

3) The TAL articles had to contain instances of disagreement in which the authors disagreed with other named researchers and/or their work since the purpose of this study was to investigate disagreement instances in the TAL articles.

4) The TAL articles had to be published between 2000 and 2011. The articles were restricted to the recent period 2000-2011 to control for changes within the discipline.

5) The TAL articles had to be written in a non-quantitative (i.e. qualitative or a combination of qualitative and quantitative) approach. The non-quantitative approach is more commonly used in social sciences, of which Theoretical and Applied Linguistics is one.

6) The TAL articles had to be written by native-English-speakers who were educated in the U.K. since their undergraduate studies and who hold a professorship in order to ensure homogeneity. Moreover, professors are senior researchers, experienced writers and established members of the disciplinary community. Their expressions of disagreement should offer insights into the accepted academic conventions and expectations in terms of internal structure and linguistic

choices. Comparing disagreement instances written by British professors with more junior academics would be useful and interesting but was beyond the scope of this study.

7) The TAL authors also had to be willing to participate in this study by agreeing to be interviewed or, at least, to corroborate the instances of disagreement in their articles. The aim was to collect disagreement instances where access to their authors was possible for corroboration, as discussed in Section 3.2.2.1. The reason was that this study focused on not only text-based move analysis, but also incorporated TAL authors' corroboration of move identification and description. In this study, author's corroboration was regarded as more reliable than using the method of inter-coder agreement in identifying the boundary for each disagreement instance and discussing each individual disagreement move and step within the disagreement instance. The TAL authors themselves were considered to be the best possible specialist informants as well as coders because they wrote the articles themselves and possessed extensive experience and expertise in writing research articles, particularly in the field of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics. As also mentioned in Section 3.2.2.1.3, the process of identifying, discussing and resolving discrepancies between the TAL authors and I was of prime importance because this ensured consistency and agreement.

To achieve the aim of data collection, instead of first choosing articles to identify disagreement instances and then trying to contact the authors, I began with the authors and moved from there to the articles. To this end, approximately 80 theoretical and applied linguists were contacted via email to ask whether they would be willing to participate in this study. They were also asked to nominate one of their own recent articles in which they disagreed with other researchers and/or work in the field. This would ensure that the TAL articles did contain some instances of disagreement. Only 24 TAL authors responded positively by either providing a citation or emailing an electronic copy of their articles to be included in this study. However, only 22 TAL articles, i.e. those which met the above-mentioned criteria, were included in this study. 11 of them were used for the pilot study (5 of which were re-used for the main study) and 11 were used for the main study (see Table 2). As a result, the primary data obtained for the main study was 16 TAL articles written by 16 British-university-educated professors (seven men and nine women). Of the 16 TAL articles, 13 were written by the interviewees and 3 were written by others who could be contacted by email. As discussed in Section 4.2, the outcome of the pilot

study suggested that it would be beneficial to analyse the TAL articles written by authors who could be interviewed or contacted in another way, such as by email. This is a small data set (i.e., 16 TAL articles); however, the specific needs of this study (that the authors had to be willing to corroborate and/or to be interviewed), the richness of the interview data, and text analysis meant that it was not feasible to work with a larger data set.

Table 2: Overview of TAL article collection process

24 articles in total
22 articles met criteria
11 articles were used for pilot study (5 articles were re-used for main study)
11 articles were used for main study
16 articles in total were used for main study

4.3.2 Ethics approval for TAL articles

While it is quite legitimate to quote from the selected TAL articles because they are already published and in the public sphere, ethical approval was still obtained to include the TAL articles in this study and to interview the authors (see Section 4.4.4 for detail). The authors who had agreed to be interviewed in this study read a Participant Information Sheet and signed a Participant Consent Form (see Appendix 4). The Participant Information Sheet and Participant Consent Form complied in full with the ethical guidelines of King's College London (see http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/research/support/ethics/applications/lowrisk/index.aspx or http://www.kcl.ac.uk/innovation/research/support/ethics/applications/MR-scheme.aspx).

The data collection methods and procedures were made clear in the Participant Information Sheet, Participant Consent Form and during the interviews. The TAL authors were also informed in the face-to-face interviews that it was possible they could be traced through the disagreement instances or extracts from their articles. The 16 TAL authors readily consented to be a part of this study. They also signed and returned the Participant Consent Forms before the end of interview. None of the TAL authors withdrew their participation from this study.

4.3.3 Identifying disagreement instances

The next step was to identify instances of disagreement. All the disagreement instances in this study were identified by me and corroborated by the TAL authors. First, I identified the disagreement instances on the basis of function or meaning conveyed in a text. The function was

identified through my comprehension of the information in a TAL article and linguistic signals. Then, I checked with the TAL authors whether they agreed with my identification of the disagreement instances in their own TAL articles. The process of identifying disagreement instances will be described in further detail in the following.

The first clue to identifying a disagreement instance was the presence of a citation or other mention of a named researcher. Although citations do not necessarily indicate disagreement (as they are also used for purposes of agreement or simply acknowledgement), the act of disagreeing cannot take place without them. As the focus was on how the TAL authors disagreed with other named researchers, instances of self-citations and general references to school of thought such as "*linguists of the Prague School*" were excluded. In other words, statements claiming that there had been researchers examining specific topics or certain studies had been conducted but not naming any of these researchers were not included. I marked the non-self-citations and checked whether the TAL authors disagreed with the named researchers or their work. I nominated certain segments of TAL articles as instances of disagreement when there was a match between the message within the instances and the definition of disagreement. In other words, at the end of this process, all instances had been identified where the TAL authors wholly or partially, by themselves or through agreement with a third party, rejected, contradicted, counterclaimed, problematized, questioned, disproved and/or dissociated from the research (which includes findings, methodology, framework, argument, criticism, belief, stance, concept, notion, definition, interpretation, paradigm, perspective, opinion and/or position) of the named researchers.

In further detail, to check whether the function of disagreeing was performed, it is important to identify the actual disagreement message, or core-disagreement move. The content and linguistic signals of a core-disagreement move played an important role in identifying a disagreement instance. The linguistic signals could vary in a cline from explicit, through to less-explicit, and to implicit. At one extreme of the cline, explicit linguistic signals could fall into two broad types. The first type was signaled explicitly by "*I disagree with* **Opposed Writer**" (and will be discussed in detail in Section 5.2.1.1). The second type was signaled explicitly by "**Opposed Writer** *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*". Less explicit and implicit linguistic signals such as problematisation, contrastive conjunction, question, counterclaim, disagreement by

agreement with a third party were found extensively (and will be discussed in detail in Section 5.2.1) but are obviously not as clear-cut and straightforward as their explicit counterparts. However, the explicit linguistic signals could serve as a useful benchmark against which other different linguistic signals could be compared and classified. This study first set "*I disagree with* **Opposed Writer**" and "**Opposed Writer** *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*" as a benchmark to classify the linguistic signals into three categories of 'Explicit', 'Less-explicit' and 'Implicit'. This study then measured the explicitness/implicitness of linguistic signals against the benchmark to determine which one of the three categories they should be classified under (see Section 5.2.1 for further detail). The criteria for measuring the explicitness/implicitness of a disagreement instance was based on, in the order of importance, (1) reference to a named opposed writer within a pre- and/or core-disagreement move, and (2) the presence or absence of explicit linguistic signals (see Section 5.2.1 for detail). In general, the more implicit a core-disagreement move, the more dependent it is on content (see Section 3.2.2.1.2 for more detailed discussion) for identification.

Having identified the core of the disagreement instances, the next step was to pay close attention to what led up to and what followed the core-disagreement to see where the disagreement started and ended. The extent, or beginning and end, of a disagreement instance was important for move analysis.

Then, the TAL authors were contacted via email again. They were sent the marked segments and asked to indicate whether they agreed with my identification by placing a "*Yes*", "*No*" or question mark "*?*" (for uncertain cases) in the margin. The segments which the TAL authors corroborated (or gave a "*Yes*" response) were included in this study as disagreement instances. In some cases where the TAL authors did not corroborate (or gave a "*No*" response) or were uncertain (or gave a "*?*" response), these segments were discussed with the TAL authors who agreed to be interviewed. In certain cases where the TAL authors changed their mind, these segments were included in this study as disagreement instances (see Table 3). In other cases where the TAL authors still did not corroborate my view, these segments were excluded from this study. It is worth mentioning here that the TAL authors' corroboration was a deciding factor in including or excluding the disagreement instances in this study. As the two examples below will show, a TAL author could disagree, though using no explicit linguistic signals. On the other

hand, a TAL author could use common linguistic signals of disagreement to just create a research space but not to disagree.

As mentioned above, at one extreme end of the disagreement cline was explicit linguistic signals and at the other end was implicit linguistic signals. Implicit core disagreement step such as 'Counterclaiming' could be difficult to identify because there were often very few linguistic signals. Certain implicit disagreement instances were identified by drawing mainly on information from my understanding of the topics and familiarity with the on-going debates as well the TAL authors' corroboration. In Example 1 below, the debate is about using naturally occurring real-life data in ESOL classroom. Example 1 contains six paragraphs, which based on my understanding of the content, topic and on-going debate, could be summarized in the following way. In the first paragraph, the TAL author acknowledges the difficulties in trying to bring the real world into the ESOL classroom. Then, in the second paragraph, the TAL author agrees with the difficulties pointed out by the opposed writers in collecting real linguistic data and turning the data into pedagogy. However, in the third paragraph, the TAL author points out some of the practicalities of using authentic data in ESOL classroom. The TAL author summarises the opposed position in a noun phrase prefaced by the proposition '*Despite*', thereby forming an 'agreement/concession' clause. This is followed by a counterclaim with the strongly personalized '*we claim*' ("*Despite the difficulties inherent in turning real linguistic data into pedagogy, we claim that the effort is necessary…*"). Subsequently, the TAL author provides examples of how authentic data could be turned into pedagogy in the fourth, fifth and sixth paragraphs. The whole Example 1 is presented in a neutral, non-judgmental manner with very few linguistic signals to signal disagreement. In fact, the TAL author accepts the complications that the opposed writers have established. However, the TAL author shifts the ground from an argument which the opposed writers may have about whether any real materials could be used in a realistic way in the ESOL classroom to arguing that it is worth the effort to build materials from the reality, even though there are problems with it. The actual disagreement message is in the agreement/concession—counterclaim, "*Despite the difficulties inherent in…we claim that the effort is necessary…*" or its simplified form—"*I agree with the opposed writers that it is difficult but it is necessary*". In the interview, the TAL author agrees that Example 1 is a disagreement instance.

"*I'm* [the TAL author] *acknowledging that it* [turning the authentic data into pedagogy] *is problematic so to that extent I'm agreeing with them* [the opposed writers] *but I'm implicitly disagreeing, although I don't say that because I think face and politeness are coming in here. I think what we are saying here is you can't just stop the argument there. You got to pursue it further and that's where I think there's a case of feeling that their argument is limited by a kind of debate about what counts real as opposed to something much more practical which was what we were interested in, which is shouldn't any materials actually be more soundly based on naturally occurring occasion, not they are those naturally occurring occasion, of course, because they aren't, but because at least they can provide something much more realistic and relevant…*"

Moreover, Example 1 is implicit because the TAL author is not disagreeing with what the opposed writers actually says. Instead, the TAL author is disagreeing with what they are inferring from what the opposed writers may say.

"*…if there is an implication here that it* [turning the authentic data into pedagogy] *can't be done, and to some extent you're* [the opposed writers] *right. The real interaction can never be recreated in the classroom, but we're* [the TAL author or their proponents] *saying if you're saying therefore it's not worth the effort, we're disagreeing with that. So we're disagreeing with the implication of what they* [the opposed writers] *say…I think one could say that disagreement can take place from inferring what the implication of somebody might say as opposed to disagreeing with what they actually say…*"

Example 1: 'Counterclaiming'

Pre-disagreement: -Agreeing	1	(**Paragraph 1**) Bridging the ESOL classroom with the real world is of course fraught with difficulties, the first being the complexity and hybridity of discourses in contemporary workplaces, institutions, and communities.
-Citing Support	2	The discourses of the new work order (**Citations**) are complex and constantly evolving with an ''endless infusion of new technologies, social and industrial restructuring, outsourcing and globalisation'' (**Citations**).
-Providing Evidence (Example)	3	Similarly, medical interactions reflect changing ideologies of patient-centredness and a discourse that frames publicly funded healthcare as a limited, even dwindling resource. Even the casual conversations and quotidian interactions of linguistic minorities are just as likely to be with other minority speakers as with so-called native speakers of English.
-Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	4	(**Paragraph 2**) A further, and related, difficulty is that collecting naturally occurring real-life data is time-consuming and expensive and access to sites to record events such as job interviews and medical consultations is difficult to gain. Where data do exist and are available to teachers and materials authors, the task of removing them from their original context and making them useable

by selecting extracts which are amenable to the classroom can be problematic, as **Opposed Writers** pointed out. This is acknowledged by **Opposed Writer** in his work on using corpora of workplace language for classroom pedagogy:

> Workplace interactions are embedded in localised contexts reflecting the discourse history or particular communities of practice and referring to contextual artefacts or shared procedures not accessible to a listener or reader of a transcription. Further, a single interaction, even when framed with opening and closing moves, is typically shaped by its role as a small part of a much larger ongoing conversation involving past and future interactions between interlocutors (p. 520)

Core-disagreement: -Contrastive Conjunction +Counterclaiming	5	(**Paragraph 3**) However, as we have discussed in previous Sections, ESOL teachers are usually required to teach English for work or employability, or ESOL citizenship or civics without any recourse to authentic data at all and are therefore unlikely to be able to identify any features of professional, institutional, or interpersonal interactions in particular contexts. Teachers are left to their own intuition with regards to these interactions and have to guess what happens in particular workplaces and other settings. Even where teachers are familiar with a particular professional field, there is often an emphasis in training on technical language connected to particular fields rather than discourse routines and subtle means of self-presentation—that is, managing face and the moral self and managing different genres in paradoxical and asymmetrical institutional settings
-Providing Evidence (Example)	6	(see **Citations** for an interesting example).
-Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	7	Despite the difficulties inherent in turning real linguistic data into pedagogy,
-Counterclaiming	8	we claim that the effort is necessary and, furthermore, that materials can be created which address real-life communication concerns and avoid the narrow functionalism of other ESOL material.
Post-disagreement: -Providing Evidence (Example)	9	We explore these possibilities in the next Section.
-Providing Evidence (Example)	10	(**Paragraph 4**) There are some interactive patterns in frequently occurring communicative events which can be pinpointed from discourse analysis and corpora which lend themselves to classroom study. Examples of these include the grammar of spoken talk (**Citations**), awareness of pragmatics in diverse contexts (**Citations**) and the data we are highlighting in this article: the structures of medical consultations (**Citations**), the hidden meaning of questions in the competency framework of interviews and high-frequency structures such as narratives which occur across all communicative settings in different forms (**Citations**).
-Providing Evidence (Example)	11	(**Paragraph 5**) The large data set of job interviews used in Talk on Trial was synthesised to form the basis of a DVD, FAQs: Frequently Asked Questions and Quickly Found Answers, the Great British Job Interview (**TAL Author**), which was produced to raise awareness of the discursive demands of job interviews amongst linguistic-minority candidates and their teachers. Our approach in producing FAQs was to trawl through the Talk on Trial report and video data to select examples which met the following criteria: particular relevance for the interpretive and productive challenges ESOL students face in such a culturally specific encounter; technical quality; and gender and ethnicity mix. Particular focus in the DVD is on interpreting and responding to competence-based questions such as ‘‘how do you cope with change’’ or ‘‘how do you manage repetitive work,’’ as in Extract 5. The DVD therefore employs an awareness-raising approach in which candidates are encouraged to notice and explore these features, rather than use the original data as models of target language to be learned. In all cases, the data is presented as it was recorded in its original context rather than simplified or idealised, but, in order to ensure all learners

have access to the data, we use subtitles, an explanatory commentary, and a guide containing all the transcriptions.

-Citing Support

12 In this way, we adopt an approach similar to **Citation**, who argued for the easification of complex legal documents, in which the L2 reader was helped to navigate the text in its original complexity rather than simplification, a process during which **Citation** found that important legal meanings were sometimes lost.

-Providing Evidence (Example)

13 (**Paragraph 6**) In Extract 5, we present one example from FAQs, that of narrative, a frequently occurring genre in the interview data. We also use narrative to illustrate two final arguments: (a) that using original data does not have to be narrowly functional and (b) that some interactional patterns such as narrative are transportable across different contexts and settings. As we mentioned earlier, the production of narratives in job interviews was seen to be a common strategy which successful candidates used to show their key competencies, as in Extract 5, ‘‘how do you cope with repetitive work?’’:

Extract 5

I 5 Interviewer, C 5 Candidate

1. I: what I’m looking for here is an example where you have done a similar kind of like
2. routine repetitive work over a period of time
3. C: well one specific agency contract I got it was only four months but it was the
4. complete mind numbingly same repetitive stuff
5. I: okay
6. C: I was working for (XXX) in Harrow and we were building headsets for
7. helicopter pilots and my specific task was to get this tiny little ear piece and get
8. a little grill and glue that and that was all I had to do all day everyday I didn’t have
9. problem with that because I was sat round a table with half a dozen other blokes and
10. you know you don’t really need to turn your brain on to do something like that you
11. can just chat and get the job done and it’s you’ve got to keep yourself amused for
12. boring jobs it’s as simple as that

(From **TAL Author**)

With this brief narrative the candidate, Duncan, packages up his answer into a short vivid story which presents him as a person who, while finding repetitive work boring, is able to find ways to deal with this boredom and continue to work efficiently. His answer is what the question was looking to elicit, and is both memorable to the interviewer and, more important, ‘‘bureaucratically processable’’ (**Citation**); it can be readily fitted into a box on the interviewer’s form. The candidates who used this structure invariably fared better in their interviews than those who did not.

-Citing Support

14 Duncan’s story follows the standard Anglo narrative structure of abstract (lines 3–4), orientation (lines 6–7), complication (lines 7–8), and evaluation-result (lines 8–12) as outlined by **Citation**.

-Proving Evidence (Example)

15 A simplified form of this structure (without, we suspect, the benefit of **Citation** analysis) has been co-opted by the business sector and used in the training of interviewers in the form of the STAR structure, which we also use in the DVD: situation (‘‘well one specific agency contract I got’’), task (‘‘my specific task was to get this tiny little ear piece’’), action (‘‘I was sat round a table with half a dozen other blokes’’), and result (‘‘you’ve got to keep yourself amused’’). This particular pattern is extremely amenable to awareness raising and noticing amongst learners and, as we argue later, is found across most communicative settings and contexts. Important for our discussion, narrative is known to be an

> essential part of self-expression and fundamental to the development of authentic voice.

Example 1, then, is an example of disagreement that is marked implicitly; the disagreement is not explicit. The opposite can also be the case. I found some ambiguous cases which contained linguistic signals of disagreement and which seemed to me to constitute disagreement, but which consultation with the TAL authors suggested were not in fact disagreement as defined by this study. Some TAL authors, for example, used some of the common core-disagreement steps such as 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction', 'Problematising' and/or 'Counterclaiming' to create a research space and disagree simultaneously. However, a few others used the same core-disagreement steps to just create a research space (see Example 2). In other words, the TAL authors might regard themselves as just creating a research space, they might or might not recognise this as a disagreement. For the purpose of analysis, this study included instances where the TAL authors created a research space and disagreed simultaneously, but excluded instances where the TAL authors just created a research space.

In Example 2 below, the argument is that conversation analysis offers a lot of insight into how doctors and patients interact but it does not look at how a patient who is using English as a second language may interact. It is not enough just to look at the standard way of interacting because that does not assist with understanding what ethnic minority patients find particular difficult about—the doctor-patient consultation. Hence, more research is needed to look at the linguistic and cultural variety which is what the TAL author's (or the proponent's) work is being about. The TAL author uses linguistic signals such as 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' and 'Problematising' to point out the shortfall in conversation analysis. The sentence, "*Although conversation analysis (CA)…, little attention has been paid to linguistic and cultural variety*", clearly signals criticism and seems to signal disagreement. However, this instance was excluded from the scope of this study because, as the TAL author said in the interview, the theoretical and methodological foundation of conversation analysis is not geared to looking at linguistic and cultural variety; therefore, the TAL author could not disagree with the conversation analysts for not looking at the variety. The purpose of the criticism, according to the TAL author, is to just create a research space by recognising that the work which has been done in conversation is limited in relation to the purpose the TAL author has in doing their research and writing their paper.

"*If it's not part of a theoretical and methodological thinking of conversation analysis to look at linguistic and cultural variety, then in a sense you can't criticize them* [the opposed writers'] *for not doing it…So I'm* [the TAL author] *not disagreeing with their work. I'm simply saying that conversation analysis has not addressed these issues, and these are issues that in this context need to be addressed. So again it's not a direct disagreement and it's acknowledging the useful and interesting work that has been done, but say that actually from my purposes in this paper with this kind of context there are limitations to what's being done…*"

Example 2: Not a disagreement instance

Core-disagreement: -Contrastive Conjunction +Agreeing	1	(**Paragraph 1**) Although conversation analysis (CA) has made a special study of the orderliness of social interaction in doctor–patient communication (**Opposed writers**) from which relevant text materials can be derived,
-Problematising	2	little attention has been paid to linguistic and cultural variety.
Post-disagreement: -Counterclaiming	3	Only within a comparative perspective, can the differences between local English speakers and those from linguistic minorities be highlighted. So though corpora of real interactions can help to create models, task authenticity can be addressed only by studying these differences.
-Providing Evidence (Example)	4	In other words, presenting a text as an interactional model or comprehension task, as in the *New Headway* example, does not focus on those aspects of the interaction which may most clearly challenge learners' assumptions about relevant and appropriate interactional behaviour. In this instance, learners would need to focus on integrating the three elements described earlier—that is, the symptoms, the context, and patient stance (**Self-citation**)—and to understand that patients are now encouraged to give a fairly extended presentation of symptoms. They would also need to know that it is common practice to present the self as a worthy patient within the cultural norms of a free health service, and that such self-presentation may help negotiate the asymmetrical health encounter.

In Table 3, 81 text segments were initially identified as disagreement instances in the TAL articles MS1-16. However, after discussions, both the TAL authors and I agreed on a total of 69 disagreement instances (85%). This demonstrated a generally high level of agreement between the TAL authors and me (85%). Individual files for each of the 16 TAL articles were created. Each file name signified the main study (MS) and participant number (1–16).

Table 3: Disagreement instances identified in the main study

	Disagreement Instances Identified by Me	Disagreement Instances Agreed by the TAL Author and Me		
		Yes	? /uncertain	No
MS1	4	3	/	1
MS2	3	/	2 (Yes*)	1
MS3	5	5	/	/
MS4	1	1	/	/
MS5	5	3	1 (Yes*)	1
MS6	10	10	/	/

MS7	12	8	1 (No**)	3
MS8	2	/	2 (Yes*)	1
MS9	5	4	/	1
MS10	4	4	/	/
MS11	5	5	/	/
MS12	4	4	/	/
MS13	7	6	/	1
MS14	5	1	4 (Yes*)	/
MS15	5	1	2 (Yes*)	2
MS16	4	2	1 (Yes*)	1
Total	81	57	12 (Yes*) 1 (No**)	12

*which were agreed as instances of disagreement by the TAL authors and me during interview discussions.
**which were agreed as non-instances of disagreement by the TAL authors and me during interview discussions.

4.3.4 Identifying disagreement moves and steps

After identifying the disagreement instances, a model for their analysis was devised. The approach taken was a combination of Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) Move-Step concept and Stadler's (2006) Pre-, Core- and Post-disagreement category. This combination was used for the following reasons. Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) concept of move and step was used in order to identify the internal structure of a disagreement instance. Move analysis is usually used to describe the structure of texts belonging to a given genre. This study, however, involves not whole texts but segments of texts and these segments do not constitute a named section unlike, for example, Introduction or Discussion. Hence, disagreement instances are not considered to be a genre because, first, they can occur within any section of a TAL article, and, second, they are just a part of a section. Nevertheless, they are a recurring element within the genre of research article, and they clearly have an internal structure. Hence, the best way of describing the internal structure of a disagreement instance is to borrow the terminology of move and step. However, in Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) proposed set of moves in Introductions, for example, there is a linear sequence of moves where each move is of equal status and none of them is more central than all the others. Hence, Stadler's terminology of pre-, core- and post-disagreement is borrowed to indicate different status of the moves and to prioritise one of the moves as more central than the others. As will be shown later in Section 5.3.2, it is apparent in this study that there is a main move in each disagreement instance. The main move can be preceded by a subsidiary pre-disagreement move and followed by a subsidiary post-disagreement move. Hence, Stadler's pre-, core- and post-disagreement category can indicate that one of the moves is the main move and the other two moves are usually additional and optional.

As mentioned in Section 3.2.2.1, three methods of identification were used. One was my own intuition about the function of a particular sentence or sentences. The second was the presence or absence of particular linguistic signals. The third was the stated view of the TAL authors. The first step to identify potential moves and steps was to read, reflect, re-read, re-reflect, read and reflect again the TAL disagreement instances before distinctive move and step categories emerged. Once familiar, all the disagreement instances were recursively examined by using Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) concept of move and step to segment the disagreement instances into possible moves and steps according to their communicative functions. In other words, as this study selected the sentence as the unit of analysis (see Section 3.2.2.1.2), the disagreement instances were read sentence by sentence carefully to assign each sentence to a move and a step label in order to describe what each move and step was doing, or which function or communicative purpose each move or step was fulfilling, relative to the whole disagreement instance. This is in line with the theoretical definition of a move and step discussed in Section 3.2.2. A disagreement move is a segment within a TAL disagreement instance which performs a specific function or communicative purpose. A disagreement move can be realized by one or more than one disagreement step. A disagreement step is thus the minimal unit that is needed to realise a communicative purpose.

In most cases, a step is composed of more than one sentence. However, as mentioned in Section 3.2.2.1.2, in some cases where a single sentence appears to contain two or more steps, the sentence is assigned to the step that appears to be more salient. However, in some cases where it is impossible to decide which of the two steps within a sentence is more salient, it is coded as containing two steps. Furthermore, occurrences of each step are marked in each TAL disagreement instance in order to identify their frequency. The number of occurrences of each step is calculated with reference to the number of times it appears without being interrupted by any other step. Hence, a step may consist of a main clause or several sentences insofar as its occurrence is not interrupted by any other step. For example, in cases where a disagreement move started with Step 1, continued with Step 2 (made up at least a clause), and then returned to Step 1, Step 1 would be counted as having occurred twice.

All the disagreement moves and steps identified by me were checked and discussed with TAL authors during the interviews. After the interviews, all the disagreement instances, moves and

steps in the TAL articles were reviewed in light of the feedback from their authors. Following that, the definitions of each individual move and step were also revised to resolve any discrepancies revealed by the TAL authors' check and to arrive at a more explicit description of what each individual move and step represented. Subsequently, the frequency of each step in each disagreement move in each disagreement instance in each TAL article was tabulated to verify how obligatory, conventional or optional the moves and steps were, following Kanoksilapatham's (2005, 2011) and Amnuai & Wannaruk's (2013) criteria (see Section 3.2.2). An obligatory move or step occurred in every TAL article (100%); a 'conventional' move or step occurred in between 60% and 99% of all TAL articles; and an 'optional' move or step occurred below 60%. After that, this study examined each individual step for their salient linguistic signals (or lexico-grammatical choices); for example, keywords, typical lexical phrases and commonly used syntactic structures.

4.4 Interviews

As mentioned in Section 4.1, this study uses interviews to complement the text analysis. This section aims to explain, firstly, the reasons for using interviews in this study, secondly how the interview data was collected, thirdly how the interviews were carried out, fourthly how anonymity of the interviewees was protected, fifthly what the interview questions were and lastly how the interview data was analysed.

4.4.1 Reasons for adding interviews

The decision to interview TAL authors was based on the following three reasons. First, from the perspective of move analysis, Swales (2004) himself has encouraged researchers to go beyond purely text analysis by adding, for example, one-on-one interviews (see Section 3.2.2.1.3.3 for detail). In fact, more and more move analysts (for example, Salager-Meyer, 1999; Anthony, 1999; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007; Biber, Connor, Upton & Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Amirian, Kassain & Tavakoli, 2008) have recognized a degree of subjectivity involved in the process of text analysis. The current trend observed in move analysis is to include a third-party corroboration such as authors (for example, Bhatia, 1982, 1993; Anthony, 1999; Basturkmen, 2012), specialist informants (for example, Dudley-Evans, 1994; Salager-Meyer, 1999; Bloor, 1999; Lim, 2006), and coders (for example, Crookes, 1986; Salager-Meyer, 1999; Peacock,

2002, 2011; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Ozturk, 2007; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Lim, 2010; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). As also mentioned in Section 3.2.2.1.3, interviewing authors can be deemed a more suitable method for a-third-party corroboration than using coders or specialist informants. The TAL authors themselves are language specialists, subject specialists and the actual writers of the TAL articles. It is easier for the TAL authors to talk meaningfully about the disagreement instances which they themselves have written. In fact, certain specific and text-based questions could only be answered by the authors of the TAL disagreement instances themselves. For example, the TAL authors could explain how and why they used certain disagreement moves and steps in their own disagreement instances.

Second, from the academic literacies' perspective, Lea & Street (1998, 1999, 2006), Lillis & Turner (2001) and Street (2009) have stressed the need to make explicit the implicit knowledge possessed by academic writers for less-experienced writers (see Section 3.3.2 for detail). Interview is suggested as one of the means which is able to provide insights into implicit writing knowledge (for example, Lea & Street, 1998, 1999). The implicit writing knowledge in this study is concerned with how and why the TAL authors in this study wrote disagreement in the way that they did. Interviews can reveal insights into the TAL authors' writing practices and reasons behind their use of certain disagreement moves or steps in their own writing. Moreover, examining the TAL authors' reasons through the lens supplied by the academic literacies model can yield a deeper understanding of author choices which could not be gained from text analysis alone.

Third, researchers outside of Academic Literacies tradition agree that interviews can yield important insights, particularly into the functions that cannot be delimited by linguistic analysis alone; for example, Harwood's study of citations (2008a, 2008b) and first-person pronouns (2006, 2007). Harwood took an interview-based approach to enable authors to provide their own accounts of the functions of citations and first-person pronouns identified in one of their own recent publications. Citations have traditionally been studied using text analysis and personal pronouns have principally been investigated via corpus analysis. However, as Harwood (2006, 2007, 2008a, 2008b) points out, the functions or motivations which underline the authors' citation or pronoun use may not be apparent simply by studying the text or linguistic features. The text or corpus analysts, who may not have specialized knowledge, often have to resort to

guesswork or interpret the functions or motivations on the basis of the surrounding text. Harwood suggests that the actual functions or motivations should be derived from the authors themselves and interpreted through the authors' eyes, rather than the analysts' eyes. He thus shows how semi-structured interviews with the actual authors of his data afford fuller input and explanations from the authors which text analysis and corpus analysis could not access. However, Harwood also mentions two shortcomings associated with interview-based approach: recall error and lack of awareness. Recollection might be made difficult because the texts the authors discussed had been written some considerable time before the interviews took place. There is also a risk that the authors might not be sufficiently aware of how they wrote to be capable of providing a detailed account. As a solution for the above-mentioned shortcomings, in Harwood's (2006, 2007, 2008a, 2008b) interview-based studies, the authors were obliged to re-read their own writing before accounting for citations or first-person pronouns in one of their own recent publications. This could avoid unreflexive responses, as in Harwood (2008a, p.1011; 2008b, p.21) own words, "this should go some way towards discouraging unreflexive responses". This suggestion is similar to this study's approach where the TAL authors were asked to re-read and discuss specific disagreement instances taken from one of their own recent articles. The interviewees in this study were linguists who might be expected to be quite aware of their own discourse. Moreover, Harwood also suggests a heuristic approach in which corpus-based and interview-based approaches could be used in tandem. This also coincides with this study's approach to complement text analysis usefully with interview. Text analysis can provide data on typical disciplinary tendencies concerning disagreement moves and steps. However, text analysis cannot investigate the use of disagreement moves and steps from the TAL authors' perspective. Instead, text analysis can serve as the foundation for interview, providing a framework in which the findings of the text analysis can be understood. Interviews can also investigate TAL authors' reasons with regard to their own use of disagreement moves and steps in their writing. Hence, together text analysis and interview can provide a fuller description of the move structure for TAL disagreement instances than would be obtained from either one alone.

4.4.2 Interview participants

As shown in Table 4, the participants in this study were 22 British-university-educated native-English-speakers who hold a professorship and met the TAL article selection criteria specified in Section 4.3.1. However, it was feasible to interview only 19 of the TAL authors about their own writing. 11 of the interviews were used for the pilot study (of which three were re-used for the main study), and eight more were used for the main study. In brief, there were 11 interviews included in the main study. All TAL authors were interviewed separately so that they did not influence what each other said, as recommended by Anthony (1999). Moreover, when a specific reason given by one TAL author was consistent with similar reasons given by other TAL authors, the reason could be regarded as more generalisable. As a result, the interview data for the main study was a corpus which was compiled from transcriptions from 11 interviews.

Table 4: Overview of interview data collection process

24 professors in total
22 professors met criteria
19 professors were interviewed
11 professors were used for pilot study (3 professors were re-used for main study)
8 professors were interviewed for the main study
11 interviews in total were used for main study

4.4.3 Interview procedure

At least one day before each face-to-face interview, in preparation for the interviews, the 11 TAL authors were emailed the interview questions and reminded of the research objectives of this study, the disagreement instances we were going to discuss and the interview time.

Before the interviews started, because of problem encountered during the pilot study (see Section 4.2), the research objectives were explained, the definitions of key terms (for example, "*disagreement*" and "*opposed writer*") were given and any question relating to the procedures was answered. The insights of the TAL authors were gained during a series of recorded face-to-face interviews lasting from one to two hours.

After the interviews, the audio recordings were transcribed into text. Individual files for each of the 11 transcripts were created. Each file name signified the pilot study (PS) or main study (MS) and transcription number (1-11). Then, all the disagreement instances, moves and steps

which were agreed by both the TAL authors and myself were reassessed and specified. After that, the frequency for each disagreement step in each disagreement move in each disagreement instance in each TAL article was classified and tabulated. Following that, the move structure of TAL disagreement (see Diagram 3 in Section 5.1) was adjusted to reflect the findings of the main study.

4.4.4 Ethics approval for interviews

As discussed above in Section 4.3.2, ethical considerations are very important in this study because in the interviews the TAL authors talked about their disagreement with other researchers or opposed writers. Some TAL authors also talked about their personal experience. This study therefore has to be particularly careful to protect as far as possible the anonymity of the TAL authors. Every effort is made to reduce the possibility of the TAL authors, the disagreement instances from their articles and the information they provided in the interviews being identified. In the interests of maintaining anonymity, demographic information or any further details about the TAL authors who participated in this study or their articles are not available. When presenting the text-analysis results and interview data in this thesis, all the TAL articles and authors were numbered and referred to simply as MS1-11 to ensure anonymity. Any information that could identify the individuals was also removed and/or replaced as far as possible. For example, when the situation required a name, identifying information such as personal family names was replaced with a generic rendering of "**Opposed Writer**", "**Proponent**", "**Third Party**", "**Citation**" or "**TAL Author**". It is also a deliberate decision to use a gender-neutral singular "*they*" to avoid specifying the gender of the TAL author referred to. Furthermore, this thesis also separated the text-analysis results and interview-analysis results into two different chapters to further anonymise the data and protect the reputation of the TAL authors. In addition, it is particularly important that the TAL authors were volunteers. Another good reason to have chosen the professors is that they are senior enough to be aware themselves of the ethical considerations as well as what they were doing. Despite all precautions, it is not entirely risk-free because anyone who knows the original article such that they can identify who wrote it would know who the author is. Nevertheless, in general that risk is relatively small.

4.4.5 Interview questions

As mentioned above, the main objective of the interviews was to answer the second general research question: why do the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do? Thus, the specific questions related to the second general research question are: 2a) How aware were the TAL authors of the disagreement moves and steps that they used?, and 2b) What rationale would the TAL authors offer for using certain disagreement moves and steps? The interview questions were piloted and revised as a result of the pilot study (see Section 4.2, Appendix 5). The interview questions served as a checklist to obtain the TAL authors' perspectives on the following four aspects: (1) disagreement moves in the TAL disagreement instances, (2) the TAL authors' explanations for using certain disagreement moves in the TAL disagreement instances, (3) disagreement steps in the TAL disagreement instances, and (4) the TAL authors' explanations for using certain disagreement steps in the TAL disagreement instances.

Hence, the TAL authors were asked both general and specific text-based questions in the interviews. The interviews began with general questions about how the TAL authors usually phrased their disagreement when they disagreed in published writing with other named researchers. They were also asked whether they were directly taught to write disagreement the way they did and whether they had referred to models for their written disagreement. After that, the TAL authors were shown the disagreement instances which had been identified in their own articles. They were asked where they found they expressed disagreement most in each disagreement instance. They were also asked how each disagreement instance was structured and why they structured the disagreement instance the way they did. Next, individual authors were shown certain disagreement steps which they individually had used demonstratively in a particular article. The following set of questions was asked about each individual disagreement step which was identified. The authors were asked whether they used a particular disagreement step and why they used the disagreement step where they did. They were also asked why they did not choose to use an explicit disagreement step instead. Before the end of the interviews, they were asked generally whether they found it difficult to recall the disagreement moves and steps. Lastly, they were checked whether there was any other section of their articles we had not talked about that they thought include a strategy they used for disagreeing.

In other words, this study not just interviewed the TAL authors generally about disagreement in general, but also focused on specific disagreement steps. As this study asked specific text-based questions, it was possible for this study to delve deeper into the reasons which accounted for a particular disagreement step of a particular author had written. For example, it was initially thought that less-explicit and implicit disagreement steps might be explained by politeness alone. However, the interview results show other reasons (which will be discussed in detail in Section 6.2.4) which are unlikely to be explained by using text analysis alone.

The interviews in this study were semi-structured. Although the above-mentioned questions had been prepared beforehand, they were followed up with supplementary questions based on the information provided by the TAL authors. In the interviews, the targeted questions were asked to extend knowledge about the TAL authors' own experiences, writing practices and their use of disagreement moves and steps. However, in the responses, the TAL authors made reference to other concepts such as epistemology, power and identity which they had not been directly asked about. In future research, it would be interesting to repeat similar interviews and build into the interview design questions which might encourage the authors to talk more about concepts such as epistemology, power and identity.

4.4.6 Interview data analysis

All the interviews conducted in this study were recorded and transcribed. The answer to each interview question was identified, labelled and grouped. The aim was to look for both commonalities and differences within the interviews. The following example is used to illustrate how the answers given by the TAL authors in the interviews were identified, labelled and grouped. For example, to find out the reasons why many TAL authors used the step of 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' in TAL disagreement instances, a few transcripts were first examined. The transcripts were read carefully to search for what different TAL authors had said about 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction'. When the sections where the TAL authors stated their reasons for using this specific step were noticed, they were underlined and highlighted. They were then labeled as '*Agreeing –Reason*' in the margin. After that, all the statements labeled as '*Agreeing –Reason*' were gathered together by copying and pasting them into a Microsoft Word file. They were then examined closely together and each of the reasons

was compared to find patterns. When different reasons were distinguished, they were labelled as '*Agreeing –Reason 1*' or '*Agreeing –Reason 2*'. All the statements bearing the same labels were then put together and a simple set of categories was created. Following that, the remaining interviews were transcribed and labelled at the same time. The aim was to ensure that the initial categories could be revised and refined when new statements were added in an effort to reflect the TAL authors' views as faithfully as possible. As pointed out in some research handbooks (for example, Seidel, 1998), this was actually a good way to protect qualitative data analysis by avoiding intensive coding early in the analytic process and by working back and forth between the parts and the whole of the data. When the TAL authors' reasons were being labelled, the categories that had been anticipated such as politeness and other categories that had been inspired by academic literacies such as epistemology, power and identity were used to some extent. After all the interviews were transcribed, labelled and grouped, all the statements in the categories were re-read, and where necessary, re-labelled and re-grouped before the reasons why the TAL authors used the step of 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' were summarized, interpreted and written in the Results section of Chapter 6. All the personally identifying information was also deleted from the transcriptions or altered to disguise the identity of the TAL authors.

4.5 Chapter summary

By way of summary, the methodological framework used in this study can be outlined as follows. With respect to text analysis, the approach was to analyse 69 TAL disagreement instances to identify patterns of disagreement moves and steps. By application of this methodology, it was possible to establish the ways in which, and the extent to which, the 69 TAL disagreement instances were structured. The findings of the text analysis will be presented and discussed in Chapter 5. With respect to interviews, the approach was to interpret the interview data through the lens of academic literacies. The academic literacies approach is used to complement the move analysis. The findings derived from the interview data will be presented and discussed in Chapter 6.

Chapter 5

TEXT ANALYSIS

5.1 Chapter introduction

As discussed in Chapters 1, 3 and 4, the aim of this study is to answer two general research questions posed in Chapter 1: (1) How is disagreement with named researchers expressed typically in the TAL articles? (2) Why do the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do? To answer the first research question, this chapter will use text analysis to explicate the recurrent moves and steps in the internal structure of TAL disagreement instances.

This chapter will be divided into two main sections: Section 5.2 for the description of each individual disagreement move and step, and Section 5.3 for the results and discussion of the text analysis of TAL disagreement instances. The recurrent moves and steps are identified in order to describe the way a TAL disagreement instance is typically structured. The chapter ends with a summary.

This chapter introduces a model for the analysis of TAL disagreement instances (see Diagram 3). This analytical model is specifically developed for this study to outline and explain how disagreement with named researchers is expressed in the TAL articles. The TAL disagreement model is arrived at after analyzing 69 disagreement instances in 16 TAL articles. In this model, a two-level internal structure—moves and steps—was proposed. It has been found that there are potentially one to three moves in a TAL disagreement instance: pre-disagreement move, core-disagreement move and post-disagreement move. Within each of the three disagreement moves, there are a variety of steps to realize different functions of each move. Although the TAL disagreement model is shown in this chapter, Chapter 5, and the interviews in Chapter 6, it must be borne in mind that the TAL disagreement model was revised subsequent to the interviews. This chapter will show how the TAL disagreement model applies to all 69 disagreement instances.

Diagram 3: TAL disagreement model

Pre-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Stating Opposed Writer's Research
	Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction
	Stating TAL Author's View
Core-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Disagreeing Explicitly
	Problematising
	Raising Question
	Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party
	Counterclaiming
	Disagreeing with a School of Thought
Post-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Providing Evidence
	Citing Support

5.2 Disagreement moves and steps

This section will describe pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves and their constituent steps in the order that they are listed in the TAL disagreement model (see Diagram 3). It will include detailed description of the communicative functions, or the move structure, of TAL disagreement instances as reflected in disagreement moves and constituent steps. This section will also discuss how individual disagreement steps were identified—either by reference to the function through text comprehension, linguistic signals and/or author's corroboration. The description of each individual disagreement step below will be accompanied by excerpts taken directly from the TAL articles and aspects of other relevant studies in the literature which relate to the findings discussed herein. However, modifications were made to the excerpts. First, citations used in the original TAL articles were replaced by "**Opposed Writer**", "**Proponent**", "**Third Party**", "**TAL Author**", and "**Citation**". Second, the typical or salient lexical-grammatical clues which signaled certain steps for each example were highlighted in bold.

This section will start with core-disagreement move and its constituent steps, followed by pre-disagreement move and steps, and then post-disagreement move and steps.

5.2.1 Core-disagreement move

A core-disagreement move is a key to identify a TAL disagreement instance. It is the starting point of the actual disagreement message in a disagreement instance. As Stadler (2006, p.91) defined it, "core disagreement strategies contain the actual disagreement message". A core-disagreement move could be realised through a variety of disagreement steps. This section will

align, fairly crudely, and discuss these disagreement steps in a cline from 'explicit' at one end of the cline, with 'less-explicit' occupying the middle of the cline, and to 'implicit' at the other end of the cline. As mentioned in Section 4.3.3, the explicit disagreement steps were set as a benchmark against which other different disagreement steps were compared and determined which one of the three categories they should be classified under. The criteria for measuring the explicitness/implicitness of a disagreement instance was based on, in the order of importance, (1) reference to a named opposed writer within a pre- and/or core-disagreement move, and (2) the presence or absence of explicit linguistic signals.

This section will be organized in three parts. The first part centres on explicit disagreement steps which were usually found in a core-disagreement move. The second part focuses on less-explicit disagreement steps, and the third part on implicit disagreement steps.

5.2.1.1 Explicit core-disagreement step: 'Disagreeing Explicitly'

The explicit disagreement step—'Disagreeing Explicitly'—in TAL disagreement instances is found to be similar to some disagreement strategies mentioned in some previous disagreement studies of spoken and written data; for example, Mulkay's (1985) 'Direct, Unmodified, Unqualified Disagreement', Greatbatch's (1992) 'Prompt and Straightforward Disagreement', Baym's (1996) 'Explicit Indicants of Disagreement', Salager-Meyer's (1999) 'Direct Academic Conflict', Cheng & Warren's (2005) 'Bald-on-record Disagreement' or Stadler's (2006) 'Performative Disagreement'. There were primarily two types of explicit disagreement step, as mentioned in Section 4.3.3. The first type was when the TAL authors disagreed explicitly with a named opposed writer and/or their work; for example, "*I disagree with* Opposed Writer" or other similar explicit expressions to that effect. To illustrate this, the following examples in skeletal form were found in some of the disagreement instances in this study:

MS3.1(3)a:	***My purpose in this chapter is to take issue with this party line***.
MS3.1(3)b:	*...but* ***I do not accept the logic their arguments****, and consequently* ***I do not accept their conclusions***.
MS3.1(3)c:	*So it is not with the facts they present that* ***I shall argue****, but rather* ***with the use of those facts as evidence for a particular view, and with the view itself****. Consequently this chapter is concerned neither with reporting findings nor with surveying literature, but with arguing. It is intended to be polemic—though not, I hope, a diatribe.*

MS4.1(10):	*Here **I part company with** **Opposed Writer**.*
MS10.4(1):	***I take a different view** that…*
MS13.1(1)a:	*In this article, **I will take issue with these theorists**.*
MS13.1(1)b:	***I also take issue with some of the theorising** which is made about 'positive politeness' and 'negative politeness' cultures, that is,...*

The second type was when explicit linguistic signals were used to make a negative evaluation about a named opposed writer and/or their work without mitigation, or what Brown & Levinson (1987) would describe as 'with no redress'; for example, "Opposed Writer *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*" or other similar explicit expressions to that effect. Some examples of this type, as found in the TAL articles, are as follows:

PS1.4(3):	*But **Opposed Writer** **is not correct**.*
PS1.5(4):	*When we look at the methodology of task-based teaching, the claim that there is no grammar **is seen to be fundamentally mistaken**.*
PS1.5(5):	*Thus, whether TBLT is viewed in terms of syllabus or methodology, **it is clearly incorrect** to claim that it 'outlaws grammar'.*
PS1.8(2):	***Not only is** **Opposed Writer** **wrong** in claiming that theorists of TBLT ignore vocabulary and pronunciation, but he is himself guilty of ignoring the very substantial evidence from empirical studies of TBLT that...*
PS1.10(2):	*However, **Opposed Writer** **is mistaken** in assuming that the teacher is limited to managing and facilitating students' performance of tasks in TBLT.*
PS1.11(3):	***This is clearly wrong**.*
PS1.12(2):	***It is incorrect** to claim that there have been no comparative evaluations of TBLT.*
PS1.12(5):	***He is incorrect** in claiming that there is no empirical support for them.*
MS3.1(5):	*…**Yet none of them**, however, beguiling, **stand up to scrutiny**, and **I shall attempt to demolish** each in turn…*
MS7.7(1):	***Opposed Writers** make a similar claim, but **mistakenly** ascribe local meaning to high and low pitch directly,…*
MS9.3(1):	***But I see no justification for** **Opposed Writer**'s claim that researchers have an 'implicit mandate' to improve classroom language learning.*
MS13.3(10):	***It could be argued that little credence should be given to** **Opposed Writer**'s views,…*
MS13.3(15):	***Both** **Opposed Writer** **and** **Opposed Writer**'s view of the linguistic changes which have occurred in the US and UK **are clearly inaccurate**,...*
MS14.3(1):	*…so **there are no grounds** upon which dysfluency can be reasonably described as a pragmatic deficit.*
MS14.5(4):	*However, **this assumption is mistaken** for at least two reasons.*

Examples such as these constitute a minority of instances. It is more common for the TAL authors not to express disagreement explicitly. The reasons for this will be discussed in Section 6.2.4.

5.2.1.2 Less-explicit core-disagreement steps

As will be seen below, the repertoire of less-explicit and implicit disagreement steps was more extensive than the explicit disagreement step. This is because the data showed that less-explicit and implicit disagreement steps were much more frequent in the TAL articles. There were potentially three less-explicit disagreement steps (see Table 9) which were usually found in a core-disagreement move and will be described in detail below; namely, 'Problematising', 'Raising Question' and 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'. Although they might not be as straightforward and clear-cut as their explicit counterparts, less-explicit disagreement steps contained (1) reference to a named opposed writer within a pre- and/or core-disagreement move, and (2) some recognisable linguistic signals of disagreement.

5.2.1.2.1 Less-explicit core-disagreement step: 'Problematising'

Instead of disagreeing explicitly, the TAL authors often disagreed less explicitly through the use of 'Problematising'. 'Problematising' is used to indicate a problem—which might include scepticism, oversight, criticism, limitation, negative evaluation, inadequacy, dissatisfaction, fallacy, flaw—in certain aspects of an opposed writer's research. In fact, much of the negative tone in this less-explicit disagreement step arose from problematisation. This disagreement step often included (1) reference to a named opposed writer and/or their work within a pre- and/or core-disagreement move, (2) contrastive conjunction, and/or (3) negative vocabulary signalling a problem, and/or specification of problem.

'Problematising' could take a variety of forms, but generally fell into two categories. In the first category, one good way to signal a problem was to use judgmental vocabulary to negatively evaluate certain aspects of an opposed writer's research. A common negative vocabulary that the TAL authors used to problematise their opposed writer's research was the word "*problem*". Some examples in the data are:

MS1.3(1):	*However, this solution is **not entirely unproblematic** either.*
MS2.2(3):	*…its holistic incorporation of everything within a solid, describable system presents **problems**.*
MS7.1(1):	*However, when we consider how the bald on record superstrategy is conceptualised, we find that such a view is **problematic**.*
MS10.1(2):	*However, the continuing preference for conceptualising literacy both as a plural*

	and as broadly autonomous or ideological in orientation, present several ***problems****.*
MS12.3(2):	Opposed Writer*'s definition poses* ***serious problems*** *when applied to courtroom discourse.*

The TAL authors also problematized their opposed writers' work by using an array of recognisable words or expressions with negative connotations to signal (1) scepticism (*sceptical*, *whether or not* **Opposed Writer** *is correct…*), (2) criticism (*criticise, prescriptivism, conservative, stereotypical*), (3) limitation (*limited*), (4) inadequacy (*lacking, unconvincing, mere*), dissatisfaction (*…it leaves too many interesting questions unanswered*), fallacy (*fallacies*, *non-sequitur*), (5) flaw (*flawed, distorted*), or (6) negative evaluation (*misconstrue, overblown, relegate, very simplistic, complicate, spectres, difficult, meaningless, failed, hard, issue, strange, the most extreme case, go too far, bizarre, over-dominance, confuse, disproportionate, the most unfortunate, false, undiscerning, violate, trouble*). Although these negative vocabularies were quite diverse syntactically, they to a certain extent shared some common semantic category of negative evaluation. This was in congruent with the function of this disagreement step—problematizing an opposed writer's research. Authentic but abbreviated examples are as follows:

MS1.1(2):	***Whether or not* Opposed Writer *is correct in his observations****,…*
MS1.3(4):	*…****it leaves too many interesting questions unanswered****.*
MS3.1(4):	*…but I believe the* ***fallacies*** *of his argument are perhaps best exposed by stripping this scholarly casing away to reveal the bare propositions beneath.*
MS3.1(5):	*…the conclusions drawn from them are* ***non-sequiturs****.*
MS3.3(1):	*…the notion that 'genius' is a sexist concept because the majority of those to whom the term has been applied are men* (In-text Referencing) *is* ***unconvincing****.*
MS3.4(2):	*…Yet* **Opposed Writer***'s and* Opposed Writer*'s use of these etymological facts as evidence for the notion of individual creative greatness as novel is another* ***non-sequitur****.*
MS4.1(14):	*In my view, we would do well to be a bit more* ***sceptical*** *than this about explanations for the formation of new colonial varieties couched in terms of identity.*
MS4.1(10):	*…and I have particular* ***trouble*** *with* **Opposed Writer***'s use of the phrase "in order to".*
MS5.4(1):	*…but the extent to which these have contributed to improving learning outcomes is* ***not always convincing****.*
MS6.4(1):	*…because it is so easily* ***misconstrued*** *(see* **Opposed Writer***)…*
MS6.8(1):	Opposed Writer*'s treatment of 'face' has been* ***criticised****,…*
MS9.1(1):	*The great claims made twenty years and more ago by* **Opposed Writer** *for the Natural Approach and by* **Opposed Writer** *and* **Opposed Writers** *for Total Physical Response are seen today as* ***overblown****, and such confidence in the*

	*existence of the best teaching method has been **relegated** to the advertisements on the back of the Sunday colour supplements that urge us to part with lots of money for a language teaching programme that will have us speaking French like a diplomat in no time at all.*
MS9.4(1):	***This too did not endure**,…*
MS11.1(1):	*His system…has been **criticised** for **prescriptivism**.*
MS13.5(1):	*However, both of them are working with a **very simplistic** model of language change.*
MS15.3(3):	*…Nevertheless, as Examples 2 and 3 indicate, it is an **incomplete** analytic perspective;…*
MS16.1(4):	*However, the code-like pragmatic rules that have been proposed so far **do not work particularly well**.*
MS16.2(11):	*As an account of comprehension, this is **not too promising either**.*

In the second category, the function of 'Problematising' could be realized by providing a specification of problem in varying degrees of detail, as the following short extracts from some of the examples illustrate. Specification of problem might or might not include negative vocabulary. Specification of problem without negative vocabulary (see example MS13.3(10) below) could be identified through understanding of the content of the TAL article in question and author's corroboration.

MS1.1(2):	*…the **spectres** of strategic manipulation and private intentions are all too likely to add further elements to the 'set' of communicative purposes and thus further **complicate** the ascription process.*
MS1.2(2):	*However, one **problem** with* **Opposed Writer***'s depiction of this communicative purpose is that it remains very general and so does not contribute much to the description of the genre as an intentional and purposeful activity, particularly as conceptualised from the viewpoint of the producer/sender.*
MS1.3(5):	*…but, on the other, this turns out to be a **difficult** recognition for genre analysts who work in business communications and who need some 'umbrella' concept to hold their message exchanges together.*
MS1.3(6):	*…they **violate** what we commonly believe to be comparable 'rhetorical action'.*
MS3.1(8):	*…others seem to form a kind of backdrop of circumstantial evidence, and as such **can be countered fairly easily**, in ways which* **Opposed Writer** *would probably accept.*
MS5.1(1)a:	*This notion **has not made much headway**, principally because,…,*
MS5.1(1)b:	*it is theoretically **flawed**. Hierarchies depend on lower components remaining relatively stable. If a major change is made to a sub-strategy or strategies, the nature of the over-arching strategy also changes to the point where to continue calling it by the same name become **meaningless**. In a similar vein some researchers have talked of a larger 'strategies' and smaller 'tactics' but this approach has also **failed** to catch on because a theoretical demarcation line between a strategy and a tactic is **hard** to come by.*

MS5.2(1):	*…but to classified it as consistently bad strategy is a proposition **not supported** by research.*
MS6.5(1):	*It is **strange** that* **Opposed Writer** *here does not develop the relation between preference structure and politeness.*
MS6.7(1):	*Perhaps **the most extreme case** is* **Opposed Writers***' claim that "God you're farty tonight" is an instance of positive politeness.*
MS6.10(1):	*On the other hand, I would argue that* **Opposed Writers** ***go too far*** *in extending the use of 'face-threatening act' not only to orders, requests, and the like, but also to such face-enhancing acts as thanking, complimenting, inviting and promising.*
MS7.2(2):	*There are, however, a number of **issues** concerning the consistency, speculative nature, and validity of* **Opposed Writer***'s model.*
MS8.1(2):	*However, the themes suggested as relevant to adult learners' lives by* **Opposed Writer** ***rarely*** *seem to step beyond the realms of shopping, cooking, cleaning, and basic civics; the question of powerful genres and registers in texts and the inequality and marginalisation faced by many ESOL and adult literacy students **are not proposed** as themes for class study or discussion.*
MS11.2(5):	*…but it examines a **mere** 12 writing samples, as opposed to 242 assignment tasks described in handouts and course syllabi. Without access to the texts produced in response to the task prompts, researcher have to rely on faculty and course developers' genre expectations, which may not all be realized.*
MS12.1(1):	**Opposed Writer***'s article is both insightful and **limited**, **lacking** in analytical detail and containing only one rather **bizarre** anecdotal example of actual courtroom discourse,…*
MS12.4(2):	*…the **over-dominance** of face-based theories in (im)politeness research has sometimes made it more **difficult** for other kinds of insights to emerge, and has resulted in a search (which may also be endless) for new face-based definitions of (im)politeness and a terminology that will do justice to interaction/discourse which takes place in very different types of contexts, whether inter-cultural, institutional or interpersonal.*
MS13.1(1):	***I argue also that it is important not to** analyse politeness and impoliteness at a social level by drawing on methodologies and frameworks which have been developed for the analysis of individual interactions.*
MS13.3(1):	*Although* **Opposed Writer** *uses the term incivility, she in fact draws, **in an unmodified way**, on terminology and research findings from politeness research, so that although she makes a nominal distinction between incivility and impoliteness, at an analytical and theoretical level she does not make any distinction between the terms. She further **confuses** matters by discussing civility at an individual level as well as at a social level, despite stating that she wishes to use the terms civility/incivility largely for politeness at a social level.*
MS13.3(2):	*These changes which* **Opposed Writer** *perceives as taking place in 'American culture as a whole' are **quite clearly loosely connected** to the notion of civility and incivility (some of them more tenuously than others).*
MS13.3(7):	*Thus, her argument about incivility in fact seems to be much more an argument about the **disproportionate** visibility or political representation and influence of social groups other than the dominant Anglo-American group, and as such* **Opposed Writer** *can be seen as aligning herself with a **conservative** position*

	within the continuing debate about political correctness, which again whilst being ostensibly a language debate is in fact a debate about political representation (Proponent).
MS13.3(10):	*…since she is writing for a popular audience and is openly drawing on anecdotal and fictitious examples.*
MS13.3(15):	*…in that they generalise perceptions about growing incivility on the basis of the views of a very small selection of the population, and because these views are based on **stereotypical** thinking.*
MS14.2(1):	*One of **the most unfortunate** consequences of the failure to institute boundaries around the field of pragmatics has been the tendency to apply the term 'pragmatics' in a rather **undiscerning** way to every aspect of communication. This tendency is pervasive in the clinical literature with everything from pragmatic language assessments to intervention studies exhibiting it to some degree. In a recent study of an intervention programme in autistic children,* **Opposed Writers** *include a diverse array of behaviours within pragmatics.*
MS14.5(7):	*To respond that these investigators simply don't understand the notion of context is too easy a reply. A more enlightened analysis of the situation requires that we consider how context is defined and discussed by workers within pragmatics. Perhaps simplistic characterisations of context by these workers can explain the **distorted** notion of context that drives the experimental studies of psychologists and clinical researchers. Several points about the discussion of context in the pragmatics literature are worth commenting upon. Frist, the use of the definite article in relation to context ('the context') in definitions of pragmatics conveys the **false** impression that we are dealing with some type of bounded entity—recall* **Opposed Writer***'s definition of pragmatics as 'the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed'.*
MS15.1(4):	*Yet linguists have tended to **overlook** this point, perhaps because of the **dominating** influence of* **Opposed Writer**'s *dual division of face into positive face and negative face.*
MS15.2(2):	*However, such a **blanket** analysis **misses** the complexity of face claims and appraisals that I experienced.*

This less-explicit disagreement step is found to be similar to some disagreement strategies mentioned in some previous disagreement studies of spoken data; for example, Beebe & Takahashi's (1989) 'Criticism', Kotthoff's (1993) 'Modulated Negative Response', and Hunston's (1993) 'Problematised Opposed Claim'.

5.2.1.2.2 Less-explicit core-disagreement step: 'Raising Question'

Another way to disagree less explicitly was by using 'Raising Question' (and an excerpt taken directly from a TAL article in this data to illustrate this step will be provided below). When the TAL authors asked a direct or indirect question, they usually either did not provide an answer or the subsequent information following the question became the answer. The scrutiny of the TAL

instances in this study revealed that structural form alone is not particular informative about the functions of the questions in context. In other words, 'Raising Question' in this study served different functions within pre-, core- and post- disagreement moves. It was perhaps more important where the step of 'Raising Question' occurred, rather than whether it was direct or indirect, or with or without answer. For example, the questions within a pre-disagreement move functioned to elaborate on a TAL author or opposed writer's research. On the other hand, the questions in the core- and post-disagreement moves often served the function of problematisation. Hence, questions in this study might fall into three broad types. The first type was 'Raising Question to Problematise'. The second type was 'Raising Question to Elaborate'. The third type was 'Raising Question to Problematise and Elaborate'.

While 'Raising Question to Elaborate' also appeared with WH-question particles such as "*What*", "*How*" and "*Why*", the primary function of 'Raising Question to Elaborate' was used to stimulate or advance discussion. On the other hand, 'Raising Question to Problematise' was used to question or raise issue on certain aspects of an opposed writer's research. The TAL authors might ask this type of question to appear to elicit information for which they did not have the answer. They might also ask this question type, but did not expect to be answered, and continued on to answer the question themselves. Hence, the authors usually used 'Raising Question to Problematise' to express disagreement less explicitly. This agrees with the description reported in some previous disagreement studies of spoken data (for example, Rees-Miller, 1995; Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998; Locher, 2004) (see Section 2.4.3.3). 'Raising Question' is also identified in many previous disagreement studies of spoken and written data but under slightly different names[1].

Example 3 below illustrates how a TAL author couched their disagreement less explicitly in the form of an indirect question without answer and a direct question with answer. In row 2 in Example 3, the opposed writers' view was that dominated groups had positive politeness and dominating groups had negative politeness. However, the TAL author disagreed less explicitly by asking an indirect question and a direct question in paragraph 2. First, the TAL author asked

[1] 'Raising Question' is similar to Kotthoff's (1993) 'Incomplete Question', Hunston's (1993) 'Rhetorical Questions', Baym's (1996) 'Challenging Questions', Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Challenge', Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Questions' and 'Rhetorical Questions', Scott's (2002) 'Questions', 'Interrogatives with S-V inversion and/or *wh*-markers', and Locher's (2004) 'Objections in the Form of a Question'.

an indirect question in row 3, via the format of "*how can…*", with no ensuing answer. The indirect question diminished the opposed writers' position and/view. The indirect question thus presented a temperately worded criticism of the opposed writers' position and/or view. Following the indirect question, the TAL author asked a direct question in row 4 via the format of "*how would…?*". The direct question was promptly answered by the TAL author and the ensuing example in row 5 was the answer and evidence. The direct question thus worked to advance discussion on the issue and to disagree less explicitly.

Example 3: Less-explicit Disagreement Step: 'Raising Question'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating TAL author's Proposition, Position and/or View	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *As I have argued elsewhere (***TAL Author***), it is difficult to assume that there are norms which will always be recognised by all as appropriate. There seem to be stereotypical notions of what is appropriate or what is polite or impolite, depending on the class that we assume a speaker belongs to. Conventional indirectness used by a middle class speaker might be understood as overly formal by a working class interactant, and positive politeness or camaraderie used by a working class speaker to a middle class hearer might be interpreted as overly familiar.*
-Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	2	*(***Opposed Writer***) argue that in their analyses of cultural differences, subcultural differences can be captured…dominated groups have positive politeness cultures; dominating groups have negative politeness cultures. That is, the world of the upper and middle groups is constructed in a stern and cold architecture of social distance, asymmetry and resentment of impositions, while the world of the lower groups is built on social closeness, symmetrical solidarity and reciprocity (***Opposed Writers***).*
Core-disagreement Move: -Raising Question (Indirect without answer)	3	(**Paragraph 2**) *For (***Opposed Writers***), working class and upper class groups differ radically in their tendency to use positive and negative politeness, but if this is the case, how can we then go on to make statements about the English language as a whole being largely a negative politeness language, since what we would then be arguing is that it is middle and upper class culture, in fact, which we are defining as English culture, and hence working class interactants do not figure as part of that culture.*
-Raising Question (Direct with Answer)	4	*And how would we be able to reconcile this with those cultures which (***Opposed Writers***) characterise as positive politeness cultures; are we to assume that in these cultures power is enacted differently or that there are few distinctions based on status?*
Post-disagreement Move: -Providing Evidence (Example)	5	*In Australia, for example, it is clear that power differences are differently managed in language, but that does not mean that, despite the stereotype of 'mateyness' of Australian culture as a whole, Australia is in essence egalitarian and that power differences are minimal.*
-Providing Evidence (Example)	6	(**Paragraph 3**) *In research I am currently doing on the politeness norms associated with 'blunt Yorkshiremen', I argue that there may be regional norms which are quite distinct from the wider cultural norms (***TAL Author and Proponent***). On the basis of stereotypical thinking about themselves, many Yorkshiremen feel enabled to speak in a way which, if used by people from other regions, might be considered impolite or overly direct. However, within Yorkshire, for some groups, there is a pride in using certain speech styles which are classified by speakers as 'plain speaking' or 'speaking your mind' and are thus not considered impolite. Use of these speech styles is valued for the sense that it gives of a strong regional identity for certain groups of men within the county, and this speech style seems to transcend some of the class boundaries*

		within the region. In Yorkshire, what are seen as 'soft Southern ways', epitomised by negative politeness, are often characterised as negative and effete.
-Counterclaiming (Alternative)	7	*Thus, if even within one language group, there are regional differences in what are considered to be politeness norms, we need to recognise how complex it is to make statements about cultural linguistic norms as a whole.*
-Citing Support	8	*It is possible to make generalisations on the basis of statistical analysis, as (***Proponent***) has done in her work on Cypriot Greek, so that it is possible to make claims about the frequency of occurrence of particular forms (***Proponent***).*
-Counterclaiming (Alternative)	9	*However, even here we would have to be careful about which group's assessment of items as polite or impolite we are focusing on. Instead, we need to be able to describe the full range of 'norms' which are considered by groups to be dominant and which lead to certain forms being considered impolite.*

5.2.1.2.3 Less-explicit core-disagreement step: 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'

'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' was considered a less-explicit disagreement step because the TAL authors could use it to disagree less explicitly with an opposed writer through agreeing explicitly with a third party who disagreed more explicitly with the opposed writer. This description is in agreement with Mulkay (1985) and Locher (2004) (see Section 2.4.3.4 for detail). There were some linguistic signals often associated with this disagreement step; for example, contrastive conjunction, negative vocabulary of problematisation and/or counterclaim (see some of the examples below). Hence, 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' consisted of (1) linguistic signals denoting disagreement, (2) citation of a named opposed writer within a pre- and/or core-disagreement move, and/or (3) citation of a named third party within a core-disagreement move. However, in order to identify this disagreement step, it was necessary to have an understanding of who was disagreeing with whom in which camp and about what. Hence, background knowledge of the topic, text comprehension and the TAL authors' corroboration were more reliable than linguistic signals to identify who the third party and opposed writer were, and hence this disagreement step. In this study, to corroborate this disagreement step, the specific names of the opposed writer and third party were used to ask the TAL authors during interviews whether they were agreeing with the third party, and whether they were disagreeing with the opposed writer through their agreement with the third party. If they answered '*Yes*' to the two questions, then they agreed that they used 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'. Below are some examples from the data:

MS2.2(1):	**…***despite being* ***criticized*** *for being* ***too simplistic*** *(e.g.,* **Third Party***).*
MS5.3(3):	*Nevertheless some authors (e.g.* **Third Party***), have been at pains to point out the SILL's* ***problems****. Not surprisingly these* ***problems*** *are related to the notion of*

	strategy size and abstractness that we discussed above. They are also related to the issue of frequency of use of strategy which, when combined with the strategy size issue, compounds the ***difficulties****.*
MS6.9(1):	*On this* ***mismatch****, see* **Third Party***, who argues that* **Opposed Writers***' concept of face should be separated into two distinct concerns: face needs and sociality rights, both subsumed under the heading of "rapport management".*
MS7.2(5):	*Note that* **Opposed Writers** ***resist*** *the idea that politeness strategies can be mixed (for example, positive politeness markers occurring in negative politeness strategies such as indirect requests), despite claims by other researchers (e.g.* **Third Party***) to the* ***contrary****.*
MS9.2(1):	**Third Party** *has dealt with what TBLL researchers mean by the term 'task' and shown it is neither* ***slippery*** *nor* ***vague****,…*
MS9.4(1):	***…****as the model was too* ***vague*** *and too large for effective evaluation (***Third Party***).*
MS11.2(2):	*It is* ***difficult****, however, to synthesise the findings from different surveys, because of the different criteria and because category names mean different things in different contexts, as* **Third Party** *point out.*
MS12.4(2):	*Though it is not possible to review here all the arguments which have been put forward for the nature and importance of face theory in relationship to (im)politeness, it's interesting to note that in their introduction to a special issue on 'Face in Interaction' in the Journal of Pragmatics (forthcoming in 2010),* **Third Party** *as the editors argue that what may now actually be fuelling a number of 'endless', and by implication* ***unresolvable****, "****controversies*** *[in conjunction with (im)politeness theory] is the continued conflation of politeness with face". They go on to argue that "while acknowledging the important role face plays in politeness and impoliteness research, it is suggested that the time has come for face to be theorized on its own terms".*
MS13.2(1):	**Third Party** *argues that* **Opposed writers***, like many other theorists, assume that impoliteness should be seen as exceptional, whereas he argues that conflict and impoliteness are much more common than has been assumed.* **Third Party** *also argues that we should analyse impoliteness in its own terms, rather than seeing it as a* ***deviation*** *from politeness; he states: 'the concepts involved can never explain impoliteness in the same way or to the same extent as they explain politeness. So the polite bias is not just a matter of differential attention, it goes far deeper than that: it is a conceptual, theoretical, structural matter (***Third Party***).* **Third Party** *argues that 'rather than seeking to mitigate face threatening acts, impoliteness constitutes the communication of intentionally gratuitous and conflictive verbal face-threatening acts which are purposefully delivered.' However, it must be recognised that the speaker's intentions which are here discerned so clearly are in fact the process of inferencing on the part of the hearer. The hearer has to work out if they consider that the speaker intended to be impolite.* **Third Party** *argues that it is not sufficient to assume that impoliteness can be characterised as 'communicative strategies designed to attack face, and hereby cause social conflict and disharmony' (***Third Party***).* **Third Party** *shows that impoliteness cannot be reduced to face threat, since this does not cover unintentional impoliteness and misinterpretations of intention.*

MS14.4(1):	*However, it is now recognised amongst theorists in the field that* **Opposed Writer** *was casting the net of pragmatics too widely in his discussion of conversation analysis: '***Opposed Writer***'s book . . . covers probably a little too much that is peripheral to pragmatics (see his sections on CA and ethnomethodology, for instance)' (anonymous book reviewer[***Third Party***]).*

The TAL author in Example 4 below used 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' to disagree implicitly with their opposed writers' instrument—SILL (which was mentioned in row 1 in Example 4). In row 3, the TAL author used an 'Agreeing with a Contrastive Conjunction' or positive comment to acknowledge the contribution of the opposed writers' instrument. Subsequently, in row 4, the TAL author followed with a contrastive conjunction ('*Nevertheless'*) and then problematised the opposed writers' instrument through their agreement with a third party's criticism of the opposed writers' instrument ("*some authors (e.g.* **Third Party***), have been at pains to point out the SILL's problems*"). When the TAL author used '*We'* in row 4 to talk about the problems mentioned by the third party, they aligned themselves with the third party. The TAL author thus expressed their disagreement less explicitly with the opposed writers' instrument through their agreement with the third party's position and/or view.

Example 4: Less-explicit Disagreement Step: 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *Without doubt the best known general questionnaire is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (or SILL) devised by* **Opposed Writer** *in the late 1980s (see* **Opposed Writer***). It is estimated that this instrument has been used in at least 30 doctoral dissertations (personal communication,* **Opposed Writer***) as well as a number of published papers. The SILL has two versions: a version for English as a Second Language; a version for foreign languages other than English. The latter has 80 items divided into six subscales.*
-Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	2	(**Paragraph 2**) *The SILL has its supporters and detractors.*
-Agreeing	3	*In support of the SILL is not only its attempt at comprehensive coverage, but also the fact that it has been submitted to reliability and construct validity measures and come out well. For example in a large study (***Opposed Writers***) it achieved a cronbach's alpha of 0.95. In confirmatory factor analysis (***Opposed Writers***) there appeared to be a good fit between the six factors, as originally conceptualized by the author, and the overall data provided by the population of language learners it was tested on.*
Core-disagreement Move: **-Contrastive Conjunction** **-Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party**	4	(**Paragraph 3**) *Nevertheless some authors (e.g.* **Third Party***), have been at pains to point out the SILL's* ***problems****. Not surprisingly these* ***problems*** *are related to the notion of strategy size and abstractness that we discussed above. They are also related to the issue of frequency of use of strategy which, when combined with the strategy size issue, compounds the* ***difficulties****.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	5	(**Paragraph 4**) *Let us, for example, compare two SILL items related to vocabulary learning: (i) I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word and (ii) I use flashcards to remember new English words. The first requires a mental operation that can be achieved in a moment, the second consists of a physical*

		action that takes a considerable amount of time and resources to achieve and, in any case may include the first strategy.
-Raising Question (Direct with Answer)	6	*So, how can these two strategies be estimated, in comparative terms, by the respondent in terms of frequency of deployment? Can using flashcards 'less than half the time' be equated with connecting a word with an image 'less than half the time'?*
-Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party	7	**Third Party** *has attempted to crystallize the SILL's* ***problems*** *by* ***claiming*** *that the items cannot be considered together as presenting the cumulative profile of a language learner and has advocated an estimate of trueness (how true a statement is for a respondent) rather than an estimate of frequency of use.*
-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary)	8	(**Paragraph 5**) *Despite its potential* ***inaccuracy****,*
-Agreeing (Positive Vocabulary)	9	*there may still be some value in using the SILL as a general indicator of what individual learners' strategic behavior is like and its categories have been put to good use in more qualitative research (e.g.* **Proponents**' *diary study). The SILL is also a useful pedagogical tool that can start learners thinking about their strategic behavior.*
-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	10	*Where I personally have a* ***problem*** *with it, as with any general LLS questionnaire, is in its very strong association with the good language learner, or with measures of proficiency or achievement. As these are terms I shall be addressing later in this chapter, I will not pursue them further here. Perhaps the caveat which must be borne in mind the most when considering a general strategies questionnaire is that it cannot show linear causality with proficiency or with success, merely an association between the strategic profile of the learner and some measure of language learning success. Yet, the temptation is to continue to make an underlying causal claim – that successful learners are successful because they use the strategies enumerated in general questionnaires.*

5.2.1.3 Implicit core-disagreement steps

Implicit disagreement steps were not easy to identify and determine. In some cases, even close and repeated readings might overlook the fact that certain segments contained disagreement. This reason was, in many cases, there appeared to be (1) no reference to a named opposed writer, and (2) very few recognizable linguistic signals of disagreement. This section will describe two implicit disagreement steps: 'Counterclaiming' and 'Disagreeing with a School of Thought'.

5.2.1.3.1 Implicit core-disagreement step: 'Counterclaiming'

'Counterclaiming' was considered an implicit disagreement step because there were often very few linguistic signals that indicated that a TAL author disagreed with an opposed writer's research (see Example 1 in Section 4.3.3 as one of the most implicit examples of 'Counterclaiming'). The only indication was that the TAL author offered contradictory and/or alternative research findings, methodology, framework, argument, criticism, belief, stance, concept, notion, definition, interpretation, paradigm, perspective, opinion and/or position which was in opposition to the opposed writer's. In other words, if the opposed writer proposed +A,

then the TAL author proposed –A (contradiction) and/or B (alternative); or if the opposed writer proposed –A, then the TAL author proposed +A and/or B.

There were generally two types of linguistic signals observed in this disagreement step. The first type was used to signal a contradiction between a TAL author's proposition or statement and an opposed writer's. It often contained negative contradiction markers (for example, "*no*" or "*not*"), positive contradiction markers (for example, "*necessarily*" or "*just is*") or expressions denoting contradiction such as "*on the contrary*", "*contrary to*" and "*neither…nor…*". Some examples taken from the TAL disagreement instances are as follows:

MS3.5(1):	*To me, **on the contrary**, such "pointless" comparisons remain one of the most interesting and as yet unsolved question of linguistics:*
MS16.3(1):	*(**contrary to** what is predicted by most pragmatic accounts, e.g.* **Opposed Writer***).*
MS16.2(9):	*…we want to argue that **neither** the rationalisation **nor** the simulation view of mindreading adequately accounts for the hearer's ability to retrieve the speaker's meaning.*
MS4.1(10):	*I see **no** role for identity factors in colonial new-dialect formation,…*
MS7.3(2):	*…and so this does **not** match one of the contexts which* **Opposed Writers** *attribute to bald on record politeness.*
MS7.6(1):	*Clearly then, this does **not** fit the pairs suggested by either* **Opposed Writer** *or* **Opposed Writer**.
MS7.8(1):	**Opposed Writers** *' claim, therefore, referred to earlier, that low pitch conveys 'comfort and commiseration' is clearly **not** valid here.*
MS8.1(2):	*…this, in itself, does **not** remove the need to raise awareness of the interactional challenges they face outside the classroom and to explore these with the students.*
MS9.2(3):	*However, it is worth having a closer look at the type of tasks used here and the type most typically used in TBLL research studies, because they are **not** at all alike.*
MS9.3(1):	*We most certainly do **not**.*
MS13.5(1):	*…although **not** necessarily quite in the way that* **Opposed Writers** *have described.*
MS14.2(3):	*However, when these supposed areas of pragmatic deficit are examined, it is clear that they are **not** so pragmatic after all. Of the five pragmatic parameters identified by* **Opposed Writers** *as being impaired in the aphasic sample, two parameters – fluency and pause time in turn-taking – are **not** pragmatic in any sense of this word.*
MS14.3(1):	*However, these linguistic deficits were lexico-syntactic, **not** pragmatic in nature,*
MS16.2(4):	*But there are several reasons for thinking that the actual comprehension process should **not** be modelled along these lines.*
MS16.2(10):	*In most cases of utterance interpretation, this rationalisation procedure would **not** work, because the desired effect **just is** the recognition of the speaker's*

	intention.
MS8.2(3)b:	*…we claim that the effort is **necessary** and, furthermore, that materials can be created which address real-life communication concerns and avoid the narrow functionalism of other ESOL material.*
MS9.2(1):	*…and here I deal with the notion that task outcomes are **necessarily** random.*
MS10.2(1):	*As I note in TAL author educational settings are **necessarily** contrived; it is the job of teachers to contrive situations for learning.*

The second type was used to signal that a TAL author was offering an alternative proposition or statement to an opposed writer through such words or phrases as "*rather*", "*than*", "*rather than*", "*prefer*", "*counter*", and "*be supplemented by*". These words suggested that the TAL author was offering, and want or like to use, another possibility or choice. Some examples found in the data are:

MS6.4(1):	*…**preferring** the term "pragmatic constraint".*
MS7.5(1):	*We will argue that there is, in fact, a more complex set of strategies for managing face attack **than** these pairs suggest.*
MS7.7(1):	*…**rather than** indirectly via inferences derived from the context.*
MS8.2(3)a:	*However, as we have discussed in previous sections, ESOL teachers are usually required to teach English for work or employability, or ESOL citizenship or civics without any recourse to authentic data at all and are therefore unlikely to be able to identify any features of professional, institutional, or interpersonal interactions in particular contexts. Teachers are left to their own intuition with regards to these interactions and have to guess what happens in particular workplaces and other settings. Even where teachers are familiar with a particular professional field, there is often an emphasis in training on technical language connected to particular fields **rather than** discourse routines and subtle means of self-presentation—that is, managing face and the moral self and managing different genres in paradoxical and asymmetrical institutional settings…*
MS11.2(5):	*As can be seen, however, survey-based typologies rely on official documents and nomenclature **rather than** descriptions of the writing students actually produce.*
MS11.4(1):	*This variety applies more to some disciplines **than** others.*
MS12.2(2):	*However, legal contexts are much more complex **than** this suggests and comprise a variety of **different** types of interaction, power relationships, goals, and pragmatic functions.*
MS15.3(3):	*…it needs to **be supplemented by** relational and collective perspectives.*

On the other hand, some alternative propositions or statements were not signaled explicitly, as shown in the examples below. They were identified on the basis of understanding of the topic and author's corroboration.

MS15.1(3):	*As I argue in section 4, this multi-level perspective on self-representation can be usefully applied to the analysis of face in interaction.*
MS15.1(7):	*Having said that, though, people may vary in how they evaluate a given attribute, and hence in the face claims they make. There is variation between people, and also variation across contexts.*
MS16.1(2):	*But however far the domain of grammar is expanded, there comes a point at which pragmatic choices – choices based on contextual information – must be made.*

However, relying solely on linguistic signals to distinguish between 'Contradiction' and 'Alternative' could be misleading, as the following examples will show. Example MS2.1(2) contained negative contradiction marker "*not*" but it was actually offering alternative proposition.

MS2.1(2):	*The reply to* **Opposed Writer** *was as follows:* *The conference event must* ***not*** *be seen in isolation, but as part of a thick description which extends across the whole book within which it is presented. . . . The analysis of the event is thus made in the light of a broader picture emerging from email interviews with 36 colleagues from 14 countries, descriptions of professional behaviour in conferences and other events, two ethnographic studies of teaching and training in British ELT . . . , and my own personal narrative of professional experience as depicted in documents and reconstructed events.* ***(*****TAL Author*****)***

On the other hand, Example MS13.1(1) below contained linguistic signals for both contradiction ("*not*") and alternative ("*rather*"), but it was in fact offering just alternative proposition.

MS13.1(1):	*...* ***not*** *to argue that changes are* ***not*** *in fact taking place, but* ***rather*** *to argue that the perceptions of these changes are based on stereotypical and ideological thinking.*

In contrast, Example MS10.4(1) also contained linguistic signals for both contradiction ("*not*") and alternative ("*than*"), but it was offering both contradictory and alternative proposition.

MS10.4(1):	*...but* ***not*** *appropriate or incorporate the underlife, as Opposed Writer calls its, of our students; that it is* ***not*** *our role to nurture those sites; that the concerns of teachers should be less with personal or local empowerment* ***than*** *with a longer-term challenge to social inequity in a wider sense (TAL author).*

However, Example MS13.4(1) did not contain any linguistic signal for either contradiction or alternative, but it was contradiction, alternative or both because the opposed writer proposed either X or Y but the TAL author proposed X and Y.

MS13.4(1):	*…each group does make use of both types of politeness to a greater or lesser extent.*

However, Example MS3.2(1) contained the word "*counter*" and MS11.3(1) contained the phrase "*contend with*". Both examples were counterclaiming, but it was not clear whether they were considered contradiction, alternative or both. It was therefore difficult to categorise MS3.2(1) or MS11.3(1) into either contradiction or alternative.

MS3.2(1):	*Yet there are important differences which this argument by association needs to confront and* ***counter****.*
MS11.3(1):	*With the aim of classifying the assignment writing produced by students, we developed a genre family framework which* ***contends with*** *'the difficulty in classifying writing assignments into neat, mutually exclusive categories' (***Opposed Writers***).*

As explained in Section 2.4.3.2, 'Counterclaim' and 'Contradiction' are two separate disagreement strategies in previous disagreement studies of spoken and written data (see Appendix 3). However, in this study, attempts to distinguish 'Contradiction'2 and 'Counterclaim'3 proved problematic because some TAL authors conflated both contradiction and alternative into one disagreement step. As the examples mentioned above show, there were cases where it was difficult to decide whether some TAL authors meant contradiction, alternative or both. Because of the overlapping nature of these two elements, it was difficult to distinguish one element from another. Hence, in this study, the two categories of 'Contradiction' and 'Alternative' were conflated and the term 'Counterclaiming' was used to encompass both contradictory and alternative proposition or statement. As it was used in the TAL disagreement instances, 'Counterclaiming' here referred to statements which made countering move, such as

[2] 'Contradiction' is similar to Mulkay's (1985) 'Evaluation which is Directly Contrastive with the Prior Evaluation', Pearson's (1986) 'Contradiction', Hunston's (1993) 'Differential of Status' and 'Modification of Status', Kotthoff's (1993) 'Turning Other's Point into Contrary Meaning', Baym's (1996) 'Contradictory Assessments', Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Contradiction' and Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Contradictory Statements'.

[3] 'Counterclaim' is similar to Kotthoff's (1993) 'Counterargument', Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Counterclaim' and 'Alternative', Holmes & Stubbe's (2003) 'Counterargument' and 'Alternative', and Cheng & Warren's (2005) '(Mitigating Device), Disagree, Deductive Rhetorical Strategy'.

contradictory and/or alternative information, with or without explicit contradiction markers, to correct or modify an opposed writer's research. Moreover, in view of the examples mentioned above, it is fair to say that linguistic signals might be helpful to a certain extent. However, to identify this disagreement step, a greater reliance should be placed on what an opposed writer's and TAL author's propositions or statements were, whether the TAL author was offering a contradictory and/or alternative proposition or statement to disagree with the opposed writer, and then whether the TAL author corroborated the contradictory and/or alternative proposition or statement.

5.2.1.3.2 Implicit core-disagreement step: 'Disagreeing with a School of Thought'

It is necessary to point out here that 'Disagreeing with a School of Thought' is actually not within the scope of this study. As mentioned in Section 4.3.3, this study focused on how the TAL authors disagreed with named opposed writers so general references to school of thought were excluded from this study. However, this implicit disagreement step was mentioned by one of the TAL authors in an interview and found in a TAL article which, unfortunately, did not meet all the data collection criteria mentioned in Section 4.3.1. Nevertheless, it is still worth pointing this step out because it is the most implicit disagreement step found in this study and merits further investigation in a future study.

'Disagreeing with a School of Thought' is implicit because it does not name any opposed writer, even though it contains linguistic signals denoting problematisation and/or counterclaim. In other words, the TAL author was disagreeing with an argument made by some researchers, but they did not say who those researchers were and left it to the readers to decide who those researchers were. Hence, by disagreeing with a school of thought, the TAL author avoided mentioning any particular opposed writer by name but associated the unnamed opposed writer with a particular point of view held by a specific group. This could be a deliberate strategy because the TAL author could easily deny that they disagreed with an opposed writer and also made it difficult for the opposed writer who held that particular view to retort or even notice that the opposed writer had been criticized because the opposed writer was not named. The TAL author was trying to separate a particular point of view from propagators of the view, even though it is arguable whether they could really separate the views belonging to people from the

people who are holding those views. Nevertheless, this disagreement step is a good strategy to avoid direct confrontation.

In Example 5 below, the TAL author disagreed with the arguments about MoL (Metaphor of Loss). There were three sub-points in this disagreement instance: the ecological metaphor of loss (paragraphs 1, 2 and 3), MoL's framing of language as a stable ontological reality (paragraph 4), and MoL among immigrants (paragraph 5). In paragraph 1, the TAL author brought in other sources, or third party, who brought up the issue of ecological MoL. In paragraphs 2 and 3, the TAL author brought in third party's arguments to contest the point of view of the ecological MoL. Up to paragraph 3, the TAL author disagreed through agreeing with the third party. Then, in paragraph 4, the TAL author only disagreed less explicitly by problematising MoL's framing of language as stable ontological reality and cited proponents for support. After that, in paragraph 5, the TAL author again brought in third party who brought up the issue of MoL among immigrants. The TAL author then disagreed less explicitly by problematising the issue and gave examples as evidence for that. The TAL author used words or expressions which signaled problematisation (for example, "*critiques*", "*emotively, loaded terms*", "*critical*", "*problem*", "*reject*", "*the big problem*", "*problematicity*", "*peril*", "*A further problem*" and "*hard*") and counterclaim (for example, "*not*"). However, the TAL author did not name any opposed writers throughout the disagreement instance. The unnamed opposed writers were referred to as "*MoL*", "*those who disseminate such thinking*", "*sociolinguists and lay people who frame discussion of language maintenance, shift and vitality in terms of emotive and moralistic terms*", "*many who are concerned about the language of the world*" and "*sociolinguists and language policy scholars who drink from the waters of the biological*". Hence, this disagreement instance was implicit because the TAL author was disagreeing with the metaphor of loss (MoL) so as to disagree with the unnamed propagators of MoL.

Example 5: 'Disagreeing with a School of Thought'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Citing a Third Party to State School of Thought	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *There is a by now a well-established academic literature on the interrelated issues of language rights and language endangerment which frames language maintenance and shift in terms of the* **MoL** *(e.g.* **Third Party***). In addition, as authors such as* **Third Party** *observe, pronouncements about language endangerment are increasingly coming from government and supra-government organisations and agencies (***Third Party** *cites as examples the National Science Foundation, a funding agency in the USA, and UNESCO) as well as in the popular media (***Third Party** *cites a story about the 'extinction' of languages on the website of the global news channel CNN).*

Examining a sample of sources focusing on language endangerment, **Third Party** *notes a constellaion of accepted views on matter. First, language is framed as the main vehicle through which cultures are constructed, maintained and passed on from one generation to another. This being the case, the loss of a language is seen as synonymous with the loss of a culture. In addition, the loss of a culture is seen as the loss of another unique part of the mosaic that is humanity in all its diversity. Important here is the* ***relative unRaising Question acceptance*** *of the ecological metaphor as appropriate for language survival and endangerment among* **those who disseminate such thinking**. *Thus, just as it is good to conserve animal species and wildlife in general, it is good to preserve languages. Finally, languages are seen as the single most important aspect of both collective and individual identities and the loss of a language is seen as necessarily damaging to the individual's ongoing life narrative.*

Core-disagreement Move 1: -Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party

2 (**Paragraph 2**) *Elsewhere,* **Third Party** *examines and* ***critiques*** *the growing tendency among* **sociolinguists and lay people to frame discussions of language maintenance, shift and vitality in terms of emotive and moralistic terms**. *She notes that particularly when this topic appears in the mass media, it takes on some of the characteristics of what is known as 'moral panic'. Thus, there is 'the presupposition of a dire and rapidly deteriorating situation…, the repeated expression of alarm about the scale of the problem, and the use of* ***emotively, loaded terms*** *to describe it (e.g. death, endangerment, extinction, threat)' (***Third Party***). In addition, like* **Third Party**, **Third Party** *is* ***critical*** *of the growing tendency to see languages as part of a global ecology, their existence and survival going hand in hand with the existence and survival of the physical environment.* **Third Party** *sees in this 'ecological' framing of language a return to views that the biological takes precedence over the social. She also notes that there is a* ***problem*** *in the metaphor of LANGUAGES ARE BIOLOGICAL SPECIES; while biological species are genetically defined, languages are not. Thus to liken the disappearance of a language, such as Saami, to the disappearance of a bird species, such as the Kirkland's Warbler, is to adopt what she terms as 'organistic view of language' that most linguists would today* ***reject****. Ultimately, however,* ***the big problem*** *with discourses of endangerment is how they too often essentialize the inter-connections and interrelationships between language, culture and identity. As both* **Third Party** *suggest, matters are not as mechanistic as* **many who are concerned about the languages of the world** *would have us believe.*

Post-disagreement Move 2: -Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party

3 (**Paragraph 3**) **Third Party** *has also devoted a good deal of attention to the* ***problematicity*** *of the 'language ecology terminology'. Among other things, he suggests that* **sociologists and language policy scholars drink from the waters of the biological** *at their own* ***peril*** *because in doing so, they may easily find themselves defending contradictory and simultaneously oppositional positions. Thus, they are for the high minded and liberal notion of diversity in a 'natural' world ecosystem that includes not only plants and animals, but also languages; however, in taking this position, they find themselves aligned philosophically with politically conservative evolutionary biologists who eschew social constructivism in favour of hard-core determinist or teleological scientism.*

Core-disagreement Move 2: -Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)

4 (**Paragraph 4**) ***A further problem*** *with the* **MoL** *is how in so many discussions about loss and preservation, language is framed as a stable ontological reality.*

Post-disagreement Move 2: -Citing Support

5 *If languages are under threat or can die or be killed, the presumption is that they exist as freestanding entities, both definable and describable by linguists and protectable by, for example government authorities. Some two decades*

		ago, **Proponent** *wrote about the 'myth' of linguistics, Raising Question, among other things, the idea that linguistics as a discipline must have language as the chief unit of analysis and that languages, as postulated by linguists, actually have any empirical validity. More recently,* **Proponent's** *ideas have been taken forward forcefully by authors such as* **Proponents***, as part of a general rethinking of how language, as emergent in social activities and practices, is to be made sense of. Thus, many applied linguists are now Raising Question the traditional idea that languages are self-contained entities with lives of their own, or 'artefacts' in* **Proponent's** *terms, independent of uses and analysts. The new emergent view of languages is summed up well by* **Proponent***. 'Languages are not organisms that interact with the environment, or fixed, static systems, but rather 'shifting changing cultural artefacts' (***Proponent***).*
-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	6	*It is therefore* ***hard*** *for those drawing on the* **MoL** *in their discussions of languages to reconcile a realist take on languages, which posits an existence prior to and independent of human contact, with a (sometimes critical) poststructuralist view of the world which accommodates, among other things, the social construction of reality as a foundational notion.*
Pre-disagreement Move 3: -Citing a Third Party to State School of Thought	7	(**Paragraph 5**) *While* **Third Party** *and others are making their comments with reference to debates which are generally about the survival of languages and cultures that are indigenous to particular geographical spaces, what they say also applied to discussions of language maintenance and shift among people that have migrated from one country to another.*
Core-disagreement Move 3: -Counterclaiming (Contradiction)	8	*In these contexts as well, the interrelationships between language, culture and identity are* ***not*** *as simple as they are often perceived and presented and in my view, the* **MoL** *is* ***not*** *always the most appropriate way of framing matters.*
Post-disagreement Move 3: -Providing Evidence (Example)	9	*One way of making the latter point is to listen to the stories told by people who have experienced, either directly or indirectly, migration in their lifetimes. I refer here to individuals classified as 'immigrants', but perhaps more importantly, their children. As I hope to show with admittedly selective examples, the* **MoL** *is often either not a part of the story of many migrants and their children, or it is considerably nuanced in the stories told by them.*

While the above section has described the disagreement steps usually found in a core-disagreement move, the next section will focus on disagreement steps usually found in a pre-disagreement move.

5.2.2 Pre-disagreement move

A pre-disagreement move is usually at the beginning of a disagreement instance. It is usually an opening move to introduce a topic to the readers or provide a preview of the ensuing disagreement. It occurs prior to a core-disagreement move because a disagreement instance often requires some prior claim and/or assessment which is then the object of disagreement. The prior claim and/or assessment could, but usually does not, signal a forthcoming disagreement to the readers. A pre-disagreement move usually begins in a number of steps. This section will describe and exemplify three steps which are usually found in a pre-disagreement move and function to open up, prepare the way for and/or lead to disagreement: 'Stating Opposed Writer's

Research', 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' and 'Stating TAL Author's View'.

5.2.2.1 Pre-disagreement step: 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research'

When it did occur, 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' was often found at the start of a disagreement instance. This step often set the scene for a disagreement instance by providing a brief account and reminding the readers of certain aspects of a named opposed writer' research that was felt to be necessary for the understanding of what followed in the core-disagreement move. Generally, 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' acted as an important pre-disagreement step as many TAL authors used this step to set out and orient towards the content of their disagreement. As its functional name suggested, this step was usually concerned with attribution to a named opposed writer and specification, in varying degrees of detail, of the opposed writer's research.

The name and definition of 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' was developed from Hunston's (1993) 'Opposed Claim'. Hunston (1993) defines 'Opposed Claim' as "the knowledge claim made by opposing authors" (p.116). In proposing the category 'Opposed Claim', Hunston notes that writers often evaluate the claim negatively (i.e., the opposed claim was probably wrong) by representing it as an 'opinion' or 'belief'. The TAL authors in this study could choose to hint that the opposed writer's research was problematic. However, the step of 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' in this study could also be expressed with or without a sense of doubt and/or qualification. The TAL authors usually choose to neutrally present the opposed writer's research which conflicted with their own. In further detail, the authors seemed to prefer presenting the opposed writer's research (i.e., research findings, methodology, framework, argument, criticism, belief, stance, concept, notion, definition, interpretation, paradigm, perspective, opinion and/or position) in a neutral way rather than in a mildly oppositional tone in this study.

Hence, this step generally fell into two categories; namely, (1) stating neutrally an opposed writer's research, and (2) hinting disagreement with an opposed writer's research. First, when the TAL authors stated neutrally their opposed writers' research, they presented it in a factual tone that did not signal any disagreement. In these neutral cases, this step was usually identified by tracing back from the core-disagreement move, and recognising the function of 'Stating

Opposed Writer's Research' in the pre-disagreement move. However, there were some linguistic signals which might serve as useful clues. Hence, in most cases the details of 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' were contained in the form of a brief statement of about one or a few sentences in length. This information was usually signalled by:

(1a) reference to a named opposed writer, and followed by factive reporting verbs in active voice. The combination of these grammatical and lexical signals formed a typical formulaic expression delineated as '**Opposed Writer** + factive reporting verbs in active voice'. These factive (reporting) verbs in active voice included, for example, "*rely on*", "*observes*", "*offers*", "*says*", "*has said*", "*found*", "*regard*", "*have sustained*", "*presented*", "*have made persuasive contributions to the understanding of*", "*has surveyed, synthesised and advanced*", "*has uncovered*", "*has spelt out*", "*recruit to their cause an account of*", "*allude to*", "*point out*", "*pointed out*", "*points out*" "*has an answer*", "*have ventured to posit*", "*espouses*", "*paints me in the same universalist colours as*", "*take up*", "*supports*", "*believes*", "*aimed to theorise*", "*groups*", "*worked with*", "*were able to directly access*", "*classified*", "*were able to analyse*", "*suggests*", "*examined*", "*selected*", "*have drawn attention to*", "*sees*", "*notes*", "*comments on*", "*describes*", "*has perceived*", "*applied*", "*have attempted to test*", "*are concerned to validate*", "*have performed*", "*have proposed*", "*has called*", "*used*", "*makes this a little clearer*", "*refers*", and "*gave several examples or how…*";

(1b) reference to a named opposed writer's research, and followed by factive reporting verbs in active voice, or delineated as '**Opposed Writer's research** + factive reporting verbs in active voice'. The related factive (reporting) verbs in active voice included, for example, "*involves*", "*assigned*", "*focus at*", "*are concerned with*", "*identify*", "*is to draw out attention to*", "*have drawn attention to*", "*was related to*", "*attempted to demarcate*", "*discusses*", "*states*", and "*focuses on*";

(1c) factive reporting verbs in passive voice, followed by the word "*by*" and reference to a named opposed writer. The combination of these grammatical and lexical signals formed a typical formulaic expression delineated as 'factive reporting verbs in passive voice + *by* + **Opposed Writer**'. These factive (reporting) verbs in passive voice included, for example, "*is represented by*", "*was employed by*", "*are believed*", "*is acknowledged by*", "*developed by*", "*devised by*", and "*are suggested by*";

(1d) factive reporting verbs in passive voice, and reference to a named opposed writer's research,

or delineated as 'factive (reporting) verbs in passive voice + **Opposed Writer's research**. The related factive reporting verbs in passive voice included, for example, "*is determined by*", "*can be seen in*" and "*can be traced back to*".

A disagreement instance with a neutral step of 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' may look like the following example. The TAL author started the disagreement instance by stating their opposed writer's research in a neutral and factual tone (see row 1 in Example 6), irrespective of their subsequent disagreement (in rows 3, 4 and 6). In other words, when the TAL author presented the opposed writer's research, they did not characterize the opposed writer's research in ways good or bad.

Example 6: 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *Before we look at some case studies that might throw empirical light on the problematics of assigning communicative purpose, it would be useful to consider the position of* **Opposed Writer**, *where he offers this extension of* **TAL Author's** *definition of genre:* *it is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it frequently occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often* ***exploited*** *by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s) (***Opposed Writer***).*
	2	(**Paragraph 2**) *As can be seen, the principal change occurs in the third sentence, and in later commentary,* **Opposed Writer** *observes that* **TAL Author** *'underplays psychological construction, which play a significant role in the concept of genre as a dynamic social process, as against a static one'. One of* **Opposed Writer's** *illustrations of such tactics is that of experienced news reporters, who may be able to insinuate their own preferred political perspectives under the appearance of objective news reports. Indeed, it is this kind of situation that leads* **Opposed Writer** *to stress the importance of having a 'specialist informant' who can double-check findings, or otherwise guide analysts in their investigations.*
Core-disagreement Move: -Doubting	3	*Whether or not* **Opposed Writer** *is correct in his observations,*
-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	4	*the spectres of strategic manipulation and private intentions are all too likely to add further elements to the 'set' of communicative purposes and thus further complicate the ascription process.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Agreeing	5	*More generally,* **TAL Author** *had already acknowledged the complexities caused by various kinds of insider knowledge: 'While news broadcasts are doubtless designed to keep their audiences up to date with events in the world (including verbal events), they may also have purposes of moulding public opinion, organizing public behaviour (as in an emergency), or presenting the controllers and paymaster of the broadcasting organisation in a favourable light'.*
-Counterclaiming	6	*Although we do not precisely find 'private intentions' here, we certainly recognised that certain players may know 'the rules of the games' and have longer-term perspectives on underlying strategies and institutional dispositions. In consequence, we are no longer looking at a simple enumberable list or 'set' of*

> *communicative purposes, but at a complexly layered one, wherein some purposes are not likely to be officially 'acknowledged' by the institution, even if they may be 'recognized'—particularly in off-record situations—by some of its expert members.*

On the other hand, when the TAL authors hinted disagreement while stating their opposed writers' research, they presented information which usually contained (1) reference to named opposed writers and/or their research, and one or more of the following linguistic signals:
(2a) reporting verbs which hedged and/or hinted at upcoming disagreement (for example, "*argue*", "*argues*", "*have argued*", "*claim*", "*seem*", "*seems*", "*appear*", "*propose*", "*assume*", "*imply*", and "*try to deal with*"). These reporting verbs were likely to be used either in active or passive voices;
(2b) adverbs which hedged and/or hinted at upcoming disagreement (for example, "*rather*", "*simply*", and "*superficially*");
(2c) nouns which hedged and/or hinted at upcoming disagreement (for example, "*assumption*");
(2d) expressions which hedged and/or hinted at upcoming disagreement (for example, "*cautious word*");
(2e) modal verbs (for example, "*may*", "*might*");
(2f) reporting verbs with a negative connotation (for example, "*laments*", "*has been criticised*", "*differs*", and "*have dominated*");
(2g) adjectives with a negative connotation (for example, "*non-committal*", "*critical*");
(2h) nouns with a negative connotation (for example, "*critique*", "*criticisms*", "*claim*", "*complaints*", "*loss*", "*railing*" , "*ills*", and "*starkness*");
(2i) expressions with a negative connotation (for example, "*apocalyptic view*", "*demagogic words*", "*short-lived enthusiasm*", "*a dominating concept*", "*a conservative ideology*", and "*fills her with a range of extreme emotions*")

Example 7 below illustrates a 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' step which hints at a forthcoming disagreement. The TAL author provided a brief account of their opposed writers' research which they were going to disagree with in row 1. The TAL author hinted at a forthcoming disagreement with the opposed writers because they used hedged expressions when they described the opposed writers' research as "*has tended to overlook*", "*assumes*", and "*the common assumption*". Then, the TAL author proceeded to disagree by counterclaiming the opposed writers' research in rows 2 and 3.

Example 7: 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (and Hinting Disagreement)	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *Research on both politeness and impoliteness **has tended to overlook** what the recipient of face threat or attack does. This is crucial, since, as every conversation analyst knows, the response to an utterance can reveal much about how that utterance is to be taken.* **Opposed Writer's** *study **assumes** that one can identify a personal insult, as opposed to a ritualistic one, by the response that such insults elicit. He suggests that personal insults are followed by a denial (cf.* **Opposed Writer***). On the other hand,* **Opposed Writers'** *study of verbal aggression notes **the common assumption** that the best way to save face in the light of verbal attack is to counterattack. In this section, we will consider whether these basic pairs, OFFENSIVE–DEFENSIVE and OFFENSIVE–OFFENSIVE, are reflected in our data.*
Core-disagreement Move: -Counterclaiming	2	*We will argue that there is, in fact, a more complex set of strategies for managing face attack than these pairs suggest.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Counterclaming	3	*Also, we will note how sequences of impoliteness acts can constitute particular 'activities', which in turn affect the interpretation of impoliteness.*

5.2.2.2 Pre-disagreement step: 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction'

When the TAL authors used 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction', they first expressed agreement or positive evaluation to genuinely, partially or superficially agree with some aspects of their opposed writers' research. Hence, there were potentially three common options to signal agreement with an opposed writer's research. The first option was the use of words or expressions which signalled agreement (for example, "*perhaps one should not be too surprised if…*", "*It is really very clear…*", "*it is quite clear that…*", "*It is clear that…*", "*I have to acknowledge that…*", "*it has been strongly maintained that…*", "*of course*", "*there is a general consensus that…*", "*it is widely recognised that…*", "*there might be a case to be made that…*", "*Now there might be a case for…*", "*…and I do not contest them…*", "*clearly*", "*did*", "*indeed*", "*Certainly,…*", "*it is true that…*", and "*we should acknowledge…*") to signal that the TAL authors agreed with some aspects of their opposed writers' research.

The second option involved the use of words or expressions with positive connotations which highlighted the positive evaluation of some aspects of their opposed writers' research (for example, "*great achievements*", "*benefit*", "*seminal treatment*", "*the most frequently cited*", "*held its ground*", "*as a necessary underpinning to any…*", "*…have proved useful*", "*…have increased significantly in scope*", "*rightly*", "*merit*", "*enlightening*", "*helps*", "*fascinating*", "*strong points*", "*true*", "*substantial*", "*attractive*", "*…is widely assumed to be basic of…*", "*this is further evidence of…*", "*very nice*", "*powerful*", "*important*", "*This, of course, is important*", "*insightful*", "*significant*", and "*particularly relevant*").

The third option was to use both words or expressions denoting agreement (for example, "*In support of…*", "*Undoubtedly*", "*of course*", "*no doubt*", "*In this I do not question…*", "*not denying…*", "") and positive evaluation (for example, "*…comes out well*", "*a good fit*", "*tribute*", "*virtue*", "*the chief merit*", "*extensive*", "*this is a necessary part of…*", "*erudition*", "*importance*", "*the crucial importance*"). Below are some example snippets which signalled both agreement and positive evaluation.

MS5.3(2):	***In support of*** *the SILL is not only its attempt at comprehensive coverage, but also the fact that it has been submitted to reliability and construct validity measures and* ***come out well****. For example in a large study (***Opposed Writers***) it achieved a cronbach's alpha of 0.95. In confirmatory factor analysis (***Opposed Writers***) there appeared to be* ***a good fit*** *between the six factors, as originally conceptualized by the author, and the overall data provided by the population of language learners it was tested on.*
MS6.1(2):	**(Citation)** *have been criticized on numerous grounds, and this itself is something of a* ***tribute*** *to* **(Citation)***: if it did not have the* ***virtue*** *of providing an explicit and detailed model of linguistic politeness, it could not have been attacked so easily. But in keeping with my title, I will here focus on one major criticism of* **(Citation)**. *It has been argued that* **(Citation)'s** *model has a Western, or even Anglophone, bias, and therefore cannot claim to present a universal theory applicable to all languages and cultures. This Western bias has been argued on a number of levels. On one level it has been claimed that* **(Citation)'s** *definition of negative politeness in terms of negative and positive face reflects an Anglo-Western view of the supremacy of an individual's desires and right to freedom:* *"Negative face: the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction – i.e., to freedom of action and freedom from imposition.* *Positive face: the positive consistent self-image or "personality" (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants. (***Citation***)"*
MS7.2(1):	***Undoubtedly****,* ***the chief merit*** *of* **Opposed Writer** *work lies in the fact that it provides an* ***extensive*** *review of linguistic strategies that may be used to aggravate face.*
MS8.1(1):	*A related concern is that shared by many ESOL and adult literacy educators over the way in which authenticity translates in curricular materials into a sometimes dreary diet of pseudo real-life scenarios such as shopping or filling in forms. ESOL has,* ***of course****, historically been concerned with teaching migrants to navigate interactions and literacy demands in, for example, health settings and street bureaucracies such as welfare offices and banks, and there is* ***no doubt*** *that* ***this is a necessary part of*** *instruction, especially for new arrivals.*
MS3.1(3):	*…****In this I do not question*** *either the* ***erudition*** *or the* ***importance*** *of the work of the current editors, or the stimulus they have given to enquiry,* ***but****…*
MS12.4(2):	***…****I would suggest that the same applies to (im)politeness theories, and* ***while not denying*** *the* ***crucial importance*** *of face as it relates to (im)politeness,…*

However, there were examples of agreement such as MS8.2(3), MS11.1(1) and MS11.2(5) where there was no explicit linguistic signals denoting agreement, positive evaluation and/or both. This step was identified by inferring from understanding of the content of the TAL articles and the context surrounding the step. For example, MS8.2(3) was explained in Section 4.3.3.

MS8.2(3):	*...**Despite** the difficulties inherent in turning real linguistic data into pedagogy,...*
MS11.1(1):	*His system, **while** providing a possible frame for empirical investigations of academic writing,...*
MS11.2(5):	*...**Opposed Writer** is the only study to explicitly incorporate some text analysis, **but**...*

After expressing agreement with some aspects of their opposed writers' research, the TAL authors then linked the agreement part to the disagreement part with a contrastive conjunction, such as '*But*', "*However*", "*While*", "*Whilst*", "*Although*", "*Yet*", "*Nonetheless*", "*Nevertheless*", "*Whereas*" or "*Despite*". The contrastive conjunctions usually signalled the transition from one step to another. After that, the authors expressed disagreement with the opposed writers' research. 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' often served to prepare the readers to be ready for the next disagreement step. In this study, 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' often preceded or was followed by the actual statement of disagreement, or disagreement steps, such as 'Problematising' or 'Counterclaiming'. This finding is in parallel with some previous disagreement studies (see Section 2.4.3.1 for detail) which point out that 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' could serve as an indicator for an upcoming disagreement.

However, 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was not just limited to occurring before a core-disagreement step. It could also occur between or after some core-disagreement steps. When it was used before a core-disagreement step, its main purpose was that of softening the disagreement. However, this function became even more noticeable when it was used between or after some core-disagreement steps. In such cases, this step appeared to belong rhetorically to the core-disagreement move and not the pre-disagreement move. Positing this step in pre-disagreement move implied equal value for both pre-disagreement and core-disagreement steps. However, in the cases where this step was found between or after core-disagreement steps, the function of 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was subordinated to the goal of the core-disagreement steps.

Example 8 below will illustrate this function. The TAL author disagreed explicitly in row 1, "*My purpose in this chapter is to take issue with this party line*". The TAL author then used words and expressions which signalled agreement (for example, "*I do not question*") and positive evaluation (for example, "*erudition*" and "*importance*") in row 2 to agree with their opposed writers' research. Then, the TAL author contrasted the initial agreement with a contrastive conjunction "*but*" in row 2. Following that, the TAL author proceeded to disagree explicitly again in row 3, "*I do not accept the logic of their arguments, and consequently I do not accept their conclusions*". Interestingly, the TAL author in Example 8 did not use any other mitigating devices to soften the explicit disagreement steps, but the force of the explicit disagreement was somewhat softened when 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was used between the two explicit disagreement steps.

Example 8: 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction'

Core-disagreement Move: -Disagreeing Explicitly	1	*My purpose in this chapter is to take issue with this party line.*
-Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	2	*In this **I do not question** either the **erudition** or the **importance** of the work of the current editors, or the stimulus they have given to enquiry, **but***
-Disagreeing Explicitly	3	*I do not accept the logic of their arguments, and consequently I do not accept their conclusions.*

Interestingly, the 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' step identified in this study seems to be the written, lengthier and more formal version of "*Well, yes, but…*" which is a common spoken preface to disagreement noted in spoken discourse analysis and conversation analysis (Pomerantz, 1984; Pearson, 1986; LoCastro, 1986; Sacks, 1987; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Beebe & Takahshi, 1989; Greatbatch, 1992; Kotthoff, 1993; Kuo, 1994; Holtgraves, 1997; Myers, 1998; Rees-Miller, 2000; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Locher, 2004; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006) and written discourse analysis (Mulkay, 1985; Myers, 1989; Baym, 1996). It seems that this common spoken disagreement strategy identified in many, particularly spoken, disagreement contexts (see Appendix 3)[4].is probably transferred into TAL disagreement

[4] 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is similar to Pomerantz's (1984) 'Agreement Tokens', 'Asserted or Claimed Agreements', 'Same Evaluation Agreements' and 'Qualified or Weakened Agreements', Mulkay's (1985) 'Agreement plus Disagreement', Pearson's (1986) 'Qualified Response or *Yes, but…*', LoCastro's (1986) 'Partial Agreement Followed by Disagreement', Sacks' (1987) 'Initial Agreement', Brown & Levinson's (1987) 'Token Agreement' and 'Pseudo-Agreement', Myers' (1989) 'Evaluative Comments', Beebe & Takahashi's (1989) 'Positive Remark and then a Subsequent Criticism, Suggestion or Request', Greatbatch (1992) 'Agreement Preface', Kotthoff (1993) 'Partial Agreement', Kuo's (1994) 'Weak Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction', Baym's (1996) 'Partial Agreement plus Disagreement Tokens', Holtgraves' (1997) 'Token Agreement' and 'Conditional Agreement', Myers' (1998) 'Weak Agreement plus Disagreement', Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Partial Agreement',

instances.

In previous disagreement studies of spoken data (for example, Pomerantz, 1984; Mulkay, 1985; Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Kotthoff, 1993; Kuo, 1994; Rees-Miller, 2000; Stadler, 2006), 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was found to be a strategy used to mitigate the potential offense of disagreement. Some previous disagreement studies even linked this strategy explicitly to politeness (for example, Rees-Miller, 2000; Cheng & Warren, 2005; Stadler, 2006) or positive politeness strategy (for example, Myers 1989; Holtgraves, 1997). However, in this study, as will be discussed in further detail in Section 6.2.3.2, the TAL authors indicated that they used 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' to genuinely, partially or superficially agree with their opposed writers' research. Hence, 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' in this study could be seen as a strategy of politeness to mitigate disagreement. This finding provides further support for Pomerantz's (1984), Mulkay's (1985), Beebe & Takahashi's (1989), Kotthoff's (1993), Kuo's (1994), Holtgraves' (1997), Rees-Miller's (2000), Cheng & Warren's (2005) and Stadler's (2006) view that 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is used to mitigate disagreement. However, it would be fair to say, at least in this study, that the use of 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was partly, but not wholly, motivated by politeness. Although the TAL authors might be concerned with maintenance of the opposed writers' face, politeness is not the only reason which influences the choice of 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' in expressing less-explicit disagreement in the TAL articles (see Section 6.2.3.2 for further detail).

5.2.2.3 Pre-disagreement step: 'Stating TAL Author's View'

'Stating TAL Author's View' refers to the propositions, positions and/or views expressed by the TAL authors and their proponents. In this study, 'Stating TAL Author's View' can be expressed either impersonally or personally. When it is expressed impersonally, it is expressed in a factual tone, sometimes with positive evaluation, but without negative evaluation. It can only be identified through understanding of the topic, the content of the TAL article in question,

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Holmes & Stubbe's (2003) 'Conventional Disagreement Strategy', Locher's (2004) '(Partial) Agreement plus *But*', Cheng & Warren's (2005) 'Positive Acknowledgement, (Mitigating Device), Disagree, Inductive or Deductive Rhetorical Strategy', and Stadler's (2006) 'Initial Agreement'.

the context surrounding the step, and the particular TAL author's proposition, position and/or view. Some TAL authors seem to prefer a neutral involvement in the topic under discussion.

The following Example 9 illustrates the use of a typical impersonal 'Stating TAL Author's View'. When the TAL author states their own position and/or view in row 1, they did not use any personal pronoun to address a specific person. The TAL author expressed their position and/or view impersonally by couching their position and/or view indirectly in the impersonalisation—"*Just as it is probably not possible to say that…, it is not possible to say that…*". Impersonalisation here might index a more neutral, and perhaps less personal, involvement in the topic at hand.

Example 9: 'Stating TAL Author's View (Impersonally)'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating TAL Author's View (Impersonally)	1	*Just as it is probably not possible to say that a language teaching approach never works, it is not possible to say that such an approach always does.*
-Citing Support	2	*No one should be expecting that any approach will emerge as the overall winner through research evidence, or any other kind of evidence (***Proponents***).*
Core-disagreement Move: -Problematising (Negative Vocabulary)	3	*The great claims made twenty years and more ago by* **Opposed Writer** *for the Natural Approach (1995) and by* **Opposed Writers** *for Total Physical Response are seen today as overblown, and such confidence in the existence of the best teaching method has been relegated to the advertisements on the back of the Sunday colour supplements that urge us to part with lots of money for a language teaching programme that will have us speaking French like a diplomat in no time at all.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	4	*Any researcher worth his or her salt knows that whether one methodology is absolutely better /more effective at delivering L2 development than another methodology is an unresearchable question. It is too big, the intervening variables (especially those that reflect individual learners' experience, attitudes, and expectations) are too many and too ill-defined to isolate and control, and so no one is trying.*
-Counterclaiming	5	*TBLL research, sensibly, focuses upon smaller questions, and typically tests one or two variables concerning task design and implementation conditions, such as pre-task planning time, task repetition, and cognitive complexity. The time-frame is usually cross-sectional, with individual task effects examined during their brief involvement in learners' lives. This approach cannot be expanded longitudinally across a course of language teaching in order to account for the bigger picture. This is not to despair, but to acknowledge limitations. Whether task-based instruction is the ideal L2 teaching method might be a mystery, or just a fanciful mental illusion.*
-Citing Support	6	*Researchers in the field tend to have more modest and realistic ambitions than to be able to announce that task-based language teaching should be adopted by every classroom in the world (***Proponents***).*

On the other hand, when the TAL authors stated their propositions, positions and/or views personally, they made use of linguistic signals such as first singular ('*I*'), first plural ('*We*'), second singular and plural ('*You*') personal pronouns, self-citations or a combination of any two of them. This is illustrated by the following examples.

MS1.2(1):	***Our final example concerns*** *a putatively more complex genre in terms of communicative purpose, textual/rhetorical features, and length—namely the company brochure.* ***In*** **TAL Author** *an elaborate attempt is made, as is usual in genre analysis, to establish what the purpose of this particular genre actually is, but not so much in order to categorize the text as such but to look at the company brochure as a 'staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity' (***Citation***).*
MS1.3(1):	***So far we have tried to demonstrate*** *that communicative purpose can be sufficiently elusive to be largely unavailable for the initial or early identification and categorization of discourses as belonging to certain genres.*
MS4.1(2):	***Now if we ask why*** *new varieties of these languages developed in the new locations,* ***then we can cite*** *a number of different factors, such as linguistic change, adaptation, and language contact. But it seems obvious that dialect contact and dialect mixture must also have been very important factors in determining the nature of colonial varieties of European languages, such as South American Spanish, Brazilian Portuguese, Afrikaans, Canadian French, and the colonial Englishes.* ***Surely if you take*** *English speakers from all over the British Isles and settle them in a single location on, say, the east coast of Australia, dialect mixture will be the inevitable result.*
MS4.1(7):	*In fact, there are some explanations for this.* ***The hypothesis which I advanced in*** **TAL Author***, which seems to have received some acceptance (e.g.,* **Citation***), is that the fundamental mechanism leading to dialect mixture is accommodation in face-to-face interaction.*
MS6.2(1):	*To many readers this article will seem like a throw-back to an earlier age when Gricean pragmatics was "cutting edge" and politeness research was in its infancy.* ***I still believe*** *that the Gricean paradigm has much to offer (in its updated "neo-Gricean" form), and this article will place strong emphasis on the linguistic, as well as the social, aspects of politeness. The term "politeness", of course, has been hotly contested in the intervening years.*
MS6.4(1):	***I will now attempt to*** *reformulate the maxims of politeness in POP. The six maxims of the PP were discussed there: the Maxims of Tact, Generosity, Approbation, Modesty, Agreement, Sympathy.*
MS7.3(1):	*All of the impoliteness superstrategies outlined in* **TAL Author***, which were largely derived from an investigation of army recruit training data,* ***were also represented in our data****, as were most of the specific linguistic output strategies.* ***First, we will cite*** *examples of these strategies, starting with bald on record impoliteness,* ***and then we will note*** *any other strategies which occurred.*
MS9.2(1):	*Having given,* ***I hope****, reasons for* ***why we should not be*** *expecting TBLL research to furnish answers to what are unanswerable questions,* ***I turn now to why we should not*** *go to the other extreme and expect little or nothing from it.*
MS13.6(1):	As ***I have argued elsewhere (*****TAL Author*****)****, it is difficult to assume that there are norms which will always be recognised by all as appropriate. There seem to be stereotypical notions of what is appropriate or what is polite or impolite, depending on the class that* ***we assume*** *a speaker belongs to. Conventional indirectness used by a middle class speaker might be understood as overly formal by a working class interactant, and positive politeness or camaraderie used by a working class speaker to a middle class hearer might be interpreted as overly*

	familiar.
MS14.4(1):	*Although, **as I am arguing in the main text**, it is incorrect to describe pause times in turn-taking as a pragmatic behaviour, this is at least an understandable error on the part of* **Citation**.
MS16.1(1)a:	*Before* **Citation***'s pioneering work, the only available theoretical model of communication was what **we** have called the classical code model (***TAL Author***), which treats communication as involving a sender, a receiver, a set of observable signals, a set of unobservable messages, and a code that relates the two. The sender selects a message and transmits the corresponding signal, which is received and decoded at the other end; when all goes well, the result is the reproduction in the receiver of the original message. Coded communication need involve no metapsychological abilities. It clearly exists in nature, both in pure and mixed forms (in which coding and inference are combined).*
MS16.1(1)b:	*Human verbal communication, by contrast, involves a mixture of coding and inference. As **we** have seen, it contains an element of inferential intention-attribution; but it is also partly coded, since the grammar of a language just is a code which pairs phonetic representations of sentences with semantic representations of sentences.*

While the previous sections have examined pre-disagreement steps, the section which follows will discuss post-disagreement steps.

5.2.3 Post-disagreement move

Subsequent to producing a core-disagreement move, most TAL authors proceeded to producing a post-disagreement move in which they could continue to problematise the opposed writer's research and/or support their own proposition, position and/or view. The section below will describe and give examples of two steps which were usually found in a post-disagreement move; namely, 'Providing Example' and 'Citing Support'.

5.2.3.1 Post-disagreement step: 'Providing Evidence'

'Providing Evidence' was an important step, particularly in a post-disagreement move in this study, to present relevant evidence such as examples and results to problematize opposed writer's research and/or to support the TAL authors' proposition, position and/or view. Hence, this step often contained (1) presentation of examples or results, and/or (2) interpretation of or comment about the examples or results presented.

Examples provided by the TAL authors served dual functions: illustration and evidence. The TAL authors used examples to appear to clarify or elaborate complex concepts to help the

readers relate to their own proposition, position and/or view. However, most authors often provided examples as supporting evidence, from their own and/or proponent's research, to substantiate or reinforce their own proposition, position and/or view, and/or to problematize the opposed writer's research. This step ('Providing Evidence'), labeled as 'Counter-example', is mentioned in passing as one of the implicit indicants of disagreement in Baym's (1996) online discussion research. When presenting examples, some TAL authors often used one or more of the following five elements:

(a) words or expressions which might signal exemplification such as "*For example*", "*example*", "*for instance*", "*such as*", "*In other words*", "*and the like*", "*etc*", "*namely*", "*cases*", "*to illustrate*", "*explicated*", "*as in Extract 5*", "*Consider the following text*", "*in this utterance (1.12)*", "*We explore these possibilities in the next section*", "*Now let us consider a second authentic example*", "*In this example*", "*An obvious example of a pragmatic process is*", and "*Consider again the above exchange between A and B*";

(b) words or expressions which might signal evidence such as "*evidence*";

(c) pointers which might signal sources of the examples or evidence (for example, "*(The Tempest Act I, scene 2)*", "*The following extract, for example, from the Skills for Life ESOL learning materials (Department for Education and Skills [DfES], 2003, Entry 1) used in the United Kingdom*", "*in the case of the Shipman trial*", "*The large data set of job interviews used in Talk on Trial was synthesised to form the basis of a DVD, FAQs: Frequently Asked Questions and Quickly Found Answers, the Great British Job Interview*", "*illustrated in (1) above*", and "*In research I am currently doing on the politeness norms associated with 'blunt Yorkshiremen'*");

(d) description of a specific example in varying degrees of detail, and/or

(e) interpretation of or comment about the specific example presented.

To illustrate, Example 10 below was one of a few examples provided in this study which had four elements mentioned above. Example 10 was an example provided by a TAL author as an evidence to problematise their opposed writers' view. In row 7 in Example 10, the TAL author used the phrase "*the following extract (E)*" to signal that they were presenting an example. The TAL author then indicated the source of the example in row 7—"*taken from data recorded not in a criminal trial but rather in the Nottinghamshire County Magistrate Courts*". Following that, in row 7, the TAL author described the specific example in detail. After that, the TAL author

interpreted the example in row 8 and used it as a supporting evidence to problematize their opposed writer's view in row 3—"**Opposed Writer's** *definition poses serious problems when applied to courtroom discourse*".

Example 10: 'Providing Example'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (and Hinting Disagreement)	1	**Opposed Writer** *in the first full-length book specifically on impoliteness has proposed a definition of what constitutes 'impoliteness' behaviour which retains a face-based theoretical approach but one which is much modified and updated, owing more to* **Citation** *than to the later work of* **Citation**. *'I take impoliteness to be the broad opposite of politeness, in that, rather than seeking to mitigate face-threatening acts (FTAs), impoliteness constitutes the communication of intentionally gratuitous and conflictive verbal face-threatening acts (FTAs) which are purposefully delivered:* *i. Unmitigated, in contexts were mitigation is required, and/or* *ii. With deliberate aggression, that is, with the face threat exacerbated, 'boosted', or maximised in some way to heighten the face damage inflicted.'* **Opposed Writer** *goes on to contend that the role of the addressee is crucial, in that 'for impoliteness to be considered successful impoliteness, the intention of the speaker (or author) to "offend" (threaten/damage face) must be understood by those in a receiver role.' Thus,* **Opposed Writer** *stresses not only that the speaker's intention must be to inflict gratuitous offense to the recipient's face but that this offensiveness be 'purposefully delivered' and clearly recognised by the hearer. For* **Opposed Writer**, *impoliteness cannot be unintentional or even incidental.*
-Stating Opposed Writer's Research (and Hinting Disagreement)	2	*This definition differs significantly from (***Proponent***)'s earlier version of impoliteness, which left open the issue of intention, i e, impoliteness encompasses also the possibility that the hearer may perceive and/or construe behaviour as intentionally face-attacking which was not so intended.*
Core-disagreement Move: -Problematising (Negative Vocabulary)	3	**Opposed Writer's** *definition poses serious problems when applied to courtroom discourse.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	4	*If this definition describes prototypical impoliteness, then,*
-Citing Supprt	5	*as (***Proponent***) also contends,*
-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	6	*such behaviour occurs only very rarely in a courtroom.*
-Providing Evidence (Presentation of Example)	7	*However,* ***the following extract (E)****, taken from data recorded not in a criminal trial but rather in the Nottinghamshire County Magistrate Courts, is instructive and relevant to* **Opposed Writer's** *concept of prototypical impoliteness. This particular defendant (D) has been previously convicted of a motoring offense and given a fine by the court, which he has failed to pay; thus, he has been summoned back to court and, after his case is heard by three magistrates and a clerk of the court, he is ordered, once again, by the Chairman of the Magistrates to pay his fine of sixty pounds. The following interaction takes place immediately after the defendant (Mr H) has been ordered to pay his fine.*

Extract E Nottinghamshire County Magistrates Court
M: Chairman of the magistrates (all male)
C: Clerk of the court (a woman in her thirties)
D: Defendant (Mr H, a man in his forties)
U: Usher

(The three magistrates confer among themselves behind their elevated table.)
D: Does that [his fine] have to be paid in Derby or Nottingham 1
M: Just a moment (Magistrates continue to confer among themselves)
C: It has to be paid here – Mr H (The clerk is seated off to the side of the court.)
D. In Nottingham
C: To this court yes - the usher will give you a letter with the address 5
D: It can't be paid in Derby
C: I just said it has to be paid here
D: I heard you the first time – I was just querying if it was possible
(Magistrates now stop conferring among themselves.)
M: Yes – now Mr H had you got a question
D: I had 10
M: What was it
D: The very officious young lady managed to answer it quite sufficiently.
M: Hmm (2 second pause) I think you should realise that if you don't pay this fine off
you'll be brought back here and uh the chances are that you'll go to prison for ninety
days 15
D: There's fifty pounds there (Takes fifty pounds out of his pocket and throws it down)
M: Thank you
C: Um – make sure that Mr H – Usher perhaps you'll escort Mr H to the Fines Office
to make sure that he pays his fifty pounds
D: I can fully assure you that my word is that if I pay the fine 20
M: That's all Mr H – thank you
this afternoon (pause) and you've dropped something on the floor
D: Thank you very much (ironic tone of voice)
(Mr H leaves the courtroom with the usher) 24

(Interpretation of Example) 8 *The interaction which take place in this extract is interesting from the perspective of (im)politeness theory in a number of different ways. First of all, as is the case in all courtrooms, a magistrates' court involves a power hierarchy in terms of who is permitted to speak, when and to what purpose. The clerk of the court is less powerful than the magistrates, who are lay persons, even though she is a professional lawyer. Both the magistrate and the clerk are allowed to question the defendant, though it is the magistrate who takes the lead role and who conveys to the defendant any decisions of the court, which has been in this case the further order to pay his fine. In the interaction which follows the order being made, there is some confusion as to the purpose and intent of the defendant's question in 11. The defendant clearly regards his query as an 'information' question, whereas though the clerk provides the information (13) she simultaneously emphasises its directive force. Thus, when the defendant asks for further confirmation of the information she has given (16) the clerk responds again, and without any mitigating features, to re-enforce and reiterate the directive force of her initial response (17). In his next utterance (18) the defendant evaluates the response of the clerk (17) as inappropriate/impolite and clarifies once more (18) that his previous question was intended only as a genuine request for information.*

-Providing Evidence 9 *According to* **Opposed Writer's** *definition, it is questionable whether the clerk's utterance (l 7) would quality as prototypical impoliteness, since it's highly unlikely that she actually intends to be offensive to the defendant or to damage his face out of personal spite. But the defendant's response in l.12 does markedly fall within the scope of* **Opposed Writer's** *definition, demonstrating that it is possible to be impolite by purposefully accusing someone else of*

		impoliteness. In this utterance (l.12) the defendant manages, without addressing her directly, to threaten the face of the clerk in several ways, all of which are calculated to undermine her professionalism and institutional role. First of all, he categorises her as 'officious', i.e. too forward in producing unhelpful information in an offensive/impolite manner; secondly, he refers to her as a 'young lady', foregrounding both her age and gender inappropriately in a professional context where they are not relevant. His tone of voice is an ironic one, which reverses the meaning of her answering his question 'quite sufficiently'. It's also interesting that the clerk doesn't respond directly to the defendant's face-attack, though she is clearly more powerful than he is, and the magistrate, appearing to be somewhat nonplussed (l 13-15), repeats the order which he has issued to the defendant earlier in the session in a more forceful manner. The clerk now does implicitly return the 'impoliteness' by instructing the usher to escort the defendant (l 18-19) - who recognises her intention to insult him in his further response,(l 20) - to the Fines Office, which is not the usual procedure and thus suggests that the defendant is not trustworthy. It's also noteworthy that the two 'thank you' lexemes, used by the magistrate to attempt to recover some level of civility and order in the court, (l 17, 19) are undermined by the defendant who uses the same form with deliberately ironic intonation (l. 23).
-Counterclaiming	10	*However, it's as well to bear in mind that this extract represents a highly unusual interactional exchange and that at least in the magistrates courts, no similar instance occurs, in my data base, which includes five magistrates presiding over the cases of twenty-six defendants. What particularly marks this interaction as out of the ordinary is that it is the defendant, the least powerful participant and one who does not occupy a professional institutional role, who challenges overtly what he considers to be the 'impoliteness' of the clerk, who does occupy such a role. This is a very risky enterprise for a defendant at the very least, since it's clear that the magistrates can exercise a very real power over the former which goes well beyond interactive retaliation, and there is much greater scope for individual action in magistrates' courts, since defendants are not represented in these courts by lawyers. As it is, the magistrate not only repeats his order that the defendant must pay his fine but adds the threat of prison, qualified by the use of the mitigating phrase 'the chances are...' etc, since he has not previously given the defendant a suspended sentence. The type of prototypical impoliteness which this particular exchange represents is never likely to happen in a criminal trial, and its significance (and risk for the defendant) is also lessened by the fact that it occurs in relationship to a procedural matter (where the fine is to be paid) rather than one which relates to the substance of the case.*
-Citing Support	11	*(***Proponent** *argues that the single discursive anecdote which she quotes in her 1989 article is also markedly out of the ordinary, representing as it does the opposite situation, whereby a prosecutor deliberately and spitefully goads and insults a defendant.)*
-Counterclaiming	12	*Nevertheless, Extract E represents a genuine instance, if one that only very rarely occurs, which the addressee (the clerk) might credibly have reported on what took place as 'the defendant in that case was very rude/impolite to me'. Moreover,*
-Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	13	*despite* **Opposed Writer** *characterisation of (im)politeness as being 'evaluative' as well as argumentative and discursive,*
-Counterclaiming	14	*it is relatively unusual in most contexts for hearers to display their assessments of (im)politeness so overtly, in this case forcing the magistrate to exercise his power explicitly and bring to an end any possibility of further interactive negotiation with a threat.*

On the other hand, when presenting results, some TAL authors often used one or more of the following five elements:

(a) used words or expressions which might signal exemplification;

(b) used linguistic signals or expressions which might refer to a graph, figure or table of results; for example, "*Figure 2 also reveals*", and "*(Supplementary Appendix C)*";

(c) referred to results of related studies; for example, "*Many such surveys (e.g.* **Proponents***) were conducted in the 1980s and early 1990s (see* **Proponent** *for details); more recent evidence comes from 137 British academics (***Proponent***)…*", "*And if researchers carry out a series of related studies, or if other researchers are along the same lines, and the same or similar results arise, or a metaanalysis of a collection of results (such as* **Proponents***) points towards a common conclusion,…*", and "*The quantitative studies into the effects of planning time on task performance with broadly similar results from a variety of studies, using different participants and different tasks, is a case in point (***TAL Author; Proponents***). Other results suggest that…*";

(d) described the results, which might include linguistic signals or expressions associated with numerical values, in varying degrees of detail, and/or

(e) interpreted or commented on the results.

In Example 11 below, the TAL author presented their own results from a previous study to support their counterclaim against their opposed writers' view. First, the TAL author used a phrase that usually signalled exemplification, "*for instance*" in row 3 in Example 11. Then, the TAL author described the results which included some numbers in row 3. The TAL author also used a pointer to refer to a graph to introduce some data illustrated in the graph, "*As Figure 2 indicates*" in row 4. After that, in row 4, the TAL author interpreted the results and used it as a supporting evidence to problematize the opposed writers' view in row 2.

Example 11: 'Providing Results'

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research (Neutrally)	1	**Opposed Writer** *suggests that 'one of the most difficult things to learn about being a university student is how to tackle the variety of different written assignments that you will be asked to complete throughout the course'.*
Core-disagreement Move: -Counterclaiming	2	*This variety applies more to some disciplines than others.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Providing Evidence (Presentation of Example)	3	***For instance**, a comparison of History and Engineering shows History students predominantly writing essays genres and book reviews from the two largest genre families (Essays and Critiques), while Engineering students produce at least 15 different genres from across the genre families (***TAL Author***).*
(Interpretation of Example)	4	***As Figure 2 indicates**, a far wider range of genres is required of students in the Life and Physical Sciences than of students in the Arts and Humanities,*

-Problematising (Negative Vocabulary and Specification of Problem)	5	*a fact often ignored by the authors of academic writing textbooks, who tend to emphasise the development of 'essayist literacy' (***Opposed Writer***) or generalised academic writing (***Opposed Writer's** *Stage Two), and tend to focus on the soft pure disciplines at the expense of science, engineering, and professional writing (***Opposed Writers***).*

However, the factor that was decisive in identifying this step was not the linguistic signals mentioned above. Rather, the decisive factors was text comprehension and author's corroboration, the reason being that there were some instances of 'Providing Evidence' in this study which did not contain any explicit linguistic signals denoting examples or results. For example, there were no explicit linguistic signals in Example 12 below which signaled that it was a 'Providing Evidence' step. It was identified through understanding of the content of the TAL article, the conflicting views between the TAL author and opposed writers, statements preceded and followed this step which clarified its meaning, and author's corroboration. In this TAL disagreement instance, the opposed writers' view was that it was difficult to classify writing assignments into neat, mutually exclusive categories. However, the TAL author's counterclaim was that they had developed a genre family framework which contended with the opposed writers' view, "*With the aim of classifying the assignment writing produced by students, we developed a genre family framework which contends with 'the difficulty in classifying writing assignments into neat, mutually exclusive categories' (***Opposed Writers***).*" (see row 1 in Example 12). Following that, the TAL author provided evidence to prove that they had overcome the difficulty mentioned by the opposed writers and had successfully assigned all 2,858 texts in the BAWE corpus to one and only one genre family, "*We consider both differentiating criteria and family resemblances, aiming to group together similar genres to form genre families, so that all 2,858 texts in the BAWE corpus could be assigned to one and only one family.*" (see row 2). Hence, this evidence substantiated the TAL author's counterclaim in row 1 which preceded the evidence in row 2. However, there were no explicit linguistic signals within these sentences which signaled that they were used to provide evidence for the counterclaim. Hence, by looking at these sentences alone and outside its context, it would be difficult to identify this step.

Example 12: 'Providing Example' without Explicit Linguistic Signals

Core-disagreement Move: -Counterclaiming	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *With the aim of classifying the assignment writing produced by students, we developed a genre family framework which contends with 'the difficulty in classifying writing assignments into neat, mutually exclusive categories' (***Opposed Writers***).*

Post-disagreement Move: **-Providing Example**	2	*We consider both differentiating criteria and family resemblances, aiming to group together similar genres to form genre families, so that all 2,858 texts in the BAWE corpus could be assigned to one and only one family.*
-Citing Support	3	*Grouping similar genres together makes the description of large numbers of texts more manageable, while categorising corpus holdings according to mutually exclusive types of writing enables users to navigate a corpus more easily, as* **Proponent** *points out.*
-Counterclaiming	4	*It also enables us to make meaningful comparisons across specific subcorpora such as disciplines or levels of study.*

5.2.3.2 Post-disagreement step: 'Citing Support'

In 'Citing Support', the TAL authors referred to previous studies, which included self-citations. Hence, the TAL authors usually provided (1) citations of specific researchers/proponents' names, and (2) direct or paraphrased quotations from the researchers/proponents, and/or summary of their work. 'Citing Support' was an important step that the TAL authors in this study used to bring in other sources/proponents as a warrant for what they said. Hence, they often used this step to link and support their viewpoints or results with previously established studies. They also used this step to align themselves with their proponents and, together, they made the case more persuasive. Through this step, the TAL authors also demonstrated their familiarity with relevant research in the field, built rapport and consensus within the field, and expressed attribution to previous contributors in the field.

Citation was the first clue to identifying this step. The second clue was that the TAL authors usually mentioned, paraphrased, summarised or quoted their proponents' statements, findings, beliefs or disbeliefs and observations as factually as possible, sometimes with positive evaluation, but without negative evaluation. Hence, some instances of 'Citing Support' contained linguistic signals that might signal agreement and/or positive evaluation with the cited researchers/proponents and/or their work. In other words, 'Citing Support' could function as both citing researchers/proponents for support and agreeing with the researchers/proponents. However, the function of citing researchers/proponents for support was more salient than the function of agreeing with the researchers/proponents when this step was used in a post-disagreement move. Hence, it was assigned to the 'Citing Support' step. This is in line with Crookes (1986), Holmes (1997), Ozturk (2007) and Amnuai & Wannaruk's (2013) suggestion (see Section 3.2.2.1.2).

In the following Example 13, the TAL author used 'Citing Support' to cite a proponent's research to support their problematisation of their opposed writer's research. The opposed writer proposed a "broad-band" approach (see row 1 in Example 13). The TAL author problematize, and hence disagreed less explicitly with, the opposed writer's "broad-band" approach by pointing out that "*they* ["broad-band" approach] *violate what we commonly believe to be comparable 'rhetorical action'*" (see row 3). Subsequently, in the post-disagreement move, the TAL author cited a proponent's research to support their disagreement. In row 4 in Example 13, the TAL author described the proponent's distinction between 'similar rhetorical action' and 'typified rhetorical action' as "*important*" and also stated that the proponent's distinction "*seem to us to be sensible constraints*". These word and phrase signaled positive evaluation of the proponent's distinction. The TAL author clearly agreed with the proponent's distinction and, more importantly, used it to support their problematisation of the opposed writer's "broad-band" approach. The two steps, 'Problematising' and 'Citing Support', were used effectively together here to strengthen the TAL author's position and/or view.

Example 13: 'Citing Support' and Agreeing

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *Finally, a bolder variant of this 'broad-band' approach can be seen in* **Opposed Writer's** *argument that promotional letters and job application letters belong to the same genre because the over-riding communicative purpose of both is to promote something (be it company, person, or product).*
-Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	2	*While such linkages and similarities can be enlightening,*
Core-disagreement Move: -Problematising	3	*they violate what we commonly believe to be comparable 'rhetorical action'.*
Post-disagreement Move: **-Citing Support (and Agreeing)**	4	*In fact,* **Proponent***, back in 1984, had already made an* ***important*** *distinction between 'similar rhetorical action' and 'typified rhetorical action'. In the latter the similarities need to be extended to the same expected type of situation and the same expected type of participants and thus need to go beyond the same type of rhetorical action per se (see* **Proponents** *for further discussion).* ***These seem to us to be sensible constraints***
-Providing Evidence	5	*(and would incidentally have the advantage of denying typification to shopping lists that are poems, parodies, love letters or language teaching materials).*
-Problematising	6	*In this respect,* **Opposed Writer's** *coalescence of two very different kinds of promotional texts, with very different kinds of audiences, into the 'same' genre creates rather more problems than it solves.*

Below are some more examples of 'Citing Support' which contained linguistic signals that might signal agreement with the cited researchers/proponents.

MS1.3(2):	*In a post-modern era when* **Proponent** ***remains a powerful influence in many fields****, it is hard to avoid recognizing that his 're-accentuations' (or reflexive re-*

	usages of earlier textual fragments for different purposes) are common in literature, journalism, advertising, politics, and the like. ***More pertinently****, as* **Proponent** *observes, "[In a parody] It could be argued, then, that all the surface features of the genre have been adequately met.*
MS2.1(3):	*Thick description* ***is a well-established method for*** *building understanding from pieces of data within a specific research setting which, because of richness of their interconnection, contribute more than the sum of their parts (***Proponent***).*
MS3.3(1):	*The feminist argument of* **Proponent** *on this issue…,* ***cited but never really countered by*** **Opposed Writer,** ***is simple but logical****. As almost all known societies have suppressed opportunities for women and promoted them for men, it is not surprising that female potential genius has usually been lost, and that more male geniuses are known to us.* ***There is nothing in this fact to disprove the assumption that*** *potential to develop genius is equally distributed between the two sexes.*
MS7.2(3):	**Proponent's** *psycholinguistic work on taboo words, their use, and their perceived offensiveness* ***provides a valuable starting point****.*
MS7.2(6):	**Proponent** *politeness model, primarily concerned with linguistic content,* ***may be used to complement*** **Citation**.
MS8.1(4):	**Proponents** ***have written extensively about*** *the lack of fit between pedagogic grammars based on written language and the grammar of spoken English. Although they do not ignore the fact that ''the leap from linguistics to pedagogy is far from straightforward'' (***Proponent***), they argue that at the very least learners should be exposed to naturally occurring talk and encouraged to become aware of its common features.* **Proponents** *base their argument for the grammar of spoken talk on evidence collected for large corpora of spoken language such as the British National Corpus (University of Oxford, 2005) and CANCODE (Cambridge University, 2009).*
MS8.2(5):	*In this way,* ***we adopt an approach similar to*** **Proponent***, who argued for the easification of complex legal documents, in which the L2 reader was helped to navigate the text in its original complexity rather than simplification, a process during which* **Proponent** *found that important legal meanings were sometimes lost.*
MS9.1(1):	*Researchers in the field* ***tend to have more modest and realistic ambitions*** *than to be able to announce that task-based language teaching should be adopted by every classroom in the world (***Proponents***).*
MS11.3(1):	*Grouping similar genres together makes the description of large numbers of texts more* ***manageable****, while categorising corpus holdings according to mutually exclusive types of writing enables users to navigate a corpus* ***more easily****, as* **Proponent** *points out.*
MS12.4(3)b:	***The importance of*** *"evidence underlies the whole practice of law in every field of litigation" and "is not the product of theory but rather of the need to solve practical problems in trials" (***Proponent***), the primary site where "evidence" must be interactively elicited, established, disputed, evaluated, etc. As* **Proponent** *argues, a judicial trial cannot be a search for the ultimate truth of past events but an adversarial contest in order "to establish that a version of what occurred has an acceptable probability of being correct" in the judgement*

	of a jury.
MS13.2(2):	*As recent research (***Proponents***) and the discussions at the recent conference at Huddersfield University on impoliteness and rudeness have shown, it is very difficult to define impoliteness adequately; there is nothing intrinsically impolite about any utterance. Often what is at issue is a negative judgement about the person accused of impoliteness, either on affective grounds or in terms of perceptions of their lack of integration into a social group or Community of Practice (***Proponents***).* **Proponent** *suggests we should use* **Proponent's** *definition of impoliteness: 'communicative acts perceived by members of a social community (and often intended by speakers) to be purposefully offensive' (***Proponents***).* ***It is clear that perceptions of impoliteness seem to play an important role in*** *relational work in interactions between individuals (***Proponents***).*
MS13.3(10):	*I have included a discussion of* **Opposed Writer** *here precisely because I feel that,* ***as*** **Proponent** ***has clearly shown****, often the distinction between academic and stereotypical thinking or folklinguistic thinking about politeness and impoliteness is not always clear.*
MS13.4(1):	*Furthermore, as* **Proponent** *has argued when analysing other cultures we should not assume that we know what function deference and formality have in interaction, for these terms may have a different interpretation in other cultures. Analysts often, for example, contrast Asian deference to the role that deference would play in British culture, and therefore make the assumption that Asian cultures are in general more concerned with status difference and roles in society than British culture. There may be an element of truth in this stereotypical view, but it is also the case that deference in many Asian cultures is conventionalised, just as indirectness is conventionalised in English, and therefore we should question whether societies as a whole can be seen as in fact tending to be concerned with social distance simply because deference is conventionalised within the language.* **Proponent** ***has drawn attention to the fact that*** *understanding honorific use in Japanese is an inferential process; it cannot be assumed that honorifics simply indicate deference or politeness. Several theorists (***Proponents***) writing on the function of indirectness, honorifics and deference in the Japanese language, have stressed the degree of flexibility that there is within so-called deference cultures, depending on the context, to stress one's role and one's position in society, whilst at other times, stressing camaraderie and positive politeness. They also all draw attention, particularly* **Proponent***, to the degree to which honorifics and deference markers do not simply indicate respect, but signal a host of other elements, for example elegance and refinement.*
MS13.5(1):	**Proponent** *states of history and change in general that 'nations and their institutions harden into shape or crumble away like sediment carried by the flow of a sluggish river'* ***and perhaps we could use this as an analogy for*** *language change.*
MS13.5(2)a:	*What* **Proponent** *argues is that* ***we have to acknowledge that*** *within all language communities there is great variation in terms of norms and that changes will occur if the usages within those particular communities come into prominence.*
MS14.5(4):	***Two prominent theorists of pragmatic interpretation,*** **Proponents,** ***subscribe to***

	the view of *context as an essentially dynamic construct in their relevance theory.* **Proponent** *remarks of this theory that '[t]he proper context for the interpretation of an utterance is not given in advance; it is chosen by the hearer'.*
MS15.1(8):	*This raises another point: face is associated with affective sensitivity.* **Proponents** *and many other face theorists* ***all agree*** *that face is a vulnerable phenomenon, and hence associated with emotional reactions.* **Proponent** *explains it as follows: "If the encounter sustains an image of him that he has long taken for granted, he probably will have few feelings about the matter. If events establish a face for him that is better than he might have expected, he is likely to 'feel good'; if his ordinary expectations are not fulfilled, one expects that he will 'feel bad' or 'feel hurt'."*
MS15.1(9):	*This description is* ***very congruent*** *with* **Proponents** *claim that self-presentation operates in foreground and background modes. When everything is going smoothly, we may barely be aware of our face sensitivities (they are operating in background mode), yet as soon as people appraise our face claims in an unexpected way (either positively or negatively) our attention is captured because we are affectively sensitive to those evaluations.*
MS16.1(4):	*Similarly, default-based accounts of generalised conversational implicatures* ***typically*** *over-generate (***Proponent***), and* ***it is widely acknowledged*** *that particularised implicatures (which depend on special features of the context) are not amenable to code-like treatment at all (***Proponent***).*
MS16.1(7):	*These theoretical arguments* ***are confirmed by a wealth of experimental evidence*** *linking the development and breakdown of general mindreading abilities and communicative abilities, both verbal and non-verbal. In autism, both general mindreading and non-verbal communication are impaired (***Proponents***; see also* **Proponents***). There are also links between the development and breakdown of general mindreading and verbal communication (***Proponents***; and the papers by* **Proponents***). For example, normal word learning involves the ability to track speakers' intentions, and correlates in interesting ways with the ability to pass the false-belief tests used in the study of general mindreading (***Proponents***). Reference resolution is another pragmatic ability that correlates in interesting ways with the ability to pass false-belief tests (***Proponents***); and there seems to be a* ***well-established*** *correlation between the interpretation of irony and second-order mindreading abilities (***Proponents***). However, there are different ways of analyzing both general mindreading abilities and their links to specifically communicative abilities. In the next section, we will consider some of these.*
MS16.2(7):	***Typically****, dedicated modules exploit the relatively 'fast and frugal heuristic' (***Proponent***) afforded by their special domain.*
MS16.2(8):	***Much developmental evidence*** *also suggests that infants and young children come equipped with domain-specific cognitive mechanisms (***Proponents***). Mindreading is one of* ***the best-evidenced cases*** *in this respect.*

Another linguistic signal that might signal 'Citing Support' was the use of the word "*As*" and followed by a named proponent and an active verb (for example, "…*as* **Proponent** *has shown…*", "*as* **Proponent** *remarks…*", "*As* **Proponent** *also reminds us,…*", "*…as* **Proponent**

also contends,…", "*…as* **Proponent** *pointed out long ago*", and "*As* **Proponent** *has documented…*") or the use of the word "*As*" and followed by a passive verb and a named proponent (for example "*…as outlined by* **Proponent**").

However, in many cases, it was more reliable to use text comprehension and context to infer that certain TAL authors cited specific researchers/proponents for the purpose of supporting, elaborating or emphasising what they had just said because there were often no explicit linguistic signals that signaled that purpose. Example 14 below is an example of the 'Citing Support' step without any explicit linguistic signals. The TAL author and their opposed writers in Example 14 had conflicting views. The opposed writers' view was that it is possible to make generalisations about language groups and cultures in terms of the degree to which they tend to use negative politeness or positive politeness. On the contrary, the TAL author was of the view that each language group does make use of both negative politeness and positive politeness to a greater or lesser extent. In row 7, the TAL author criticized one of the opposed writers for using another culture's politeness norms to talk about British politeness. Following that, in row 8 in Example 14, the TAL author cited another researcher to state that "*When judgements are made about other cultures in relation to politeness, it is often either to accuse other cultural groups of impoliteness, to praise them for their excesses of politeness in relation to our own, or to judge excesses of politeness as superficial and superfluous*". This citation was followed by an example in row 9, taken from another source, of the problem in judging Arabs as too direct or rude when they are speaking English. The citation in question, when viewed on its own, contained no explicit linguistic clues to signal support. It was through understanding the conflicting views between the TAL author and the opposed writers as well as the sentences which preceded and followed the citation in question which both discussed the problem of using one culture's politeness norms to talk about another culture that it gradually became clearer that the TAL author cited the proponent's view here to support their argument.

Example 14: 'Citing Support' without Explicit Linguistic Signals

Pre-disagreement Move: -Stating Opposed Writer's Research	1	(**Paragraph 1**) *Both* **Opposed writers** *draw on work by* **Opposed Writers** *which argues that it is possible to make generalisations about language groups and cultures in terms of the degree to which they tend to use negative politeness or positive politeness. By this, they mean that in certain cultures and language groups there is a tendency for negative politeness to be the norm, and the instances that are generally cited are Japanese and English cultures where they claim deference and formality are seen to be of greater importance than in other*

		language groups. Positive politeness cultures, for **Opposed Writers**, *are ones like Australia and America where deference and formality are seen as an impediment to communication and camaraderie is stressed instead.*
-Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	2	*However, although at a stereotypical level, it is quite clear that there are differences of emphasis in language groups on certain types of politeness,*
Core-disagreement Move: -Counterclaiming	3	*each group does make use of both types of politeness to a greater or lesser extent.*
Post-disagreement Move: -Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party	4	**Third Party** *attempts to challenge the notion that UK culture is a negative politeness culture whilst US culture tends towards positive politeness; but even he needs to qualify this assertion at some length: 'This isn't to say that the desire to be approved of, in some direct or peripheral way, is non-existent in UK culture, nor that the desire to be free from imposition is simply non-existent in US culture (far from it, in some sections), rather that, (traditionally at least) the desire to be free from imposition and the desire for approval are more important respectively in these two cultures (with all other things being equal)' (***Third Party***). Thus,* **Third Party** *even whilst arguing that there are tendencies in these cultures towards positive and negative politeness acknowledges, through his use of hedges, that both cultures also engage in both types of politeness behaviour.*
-Citing Support	5	*Furthermore, as* **Proponent** *has argued (1992) when analysing other cultures we should not assume that we know what function deference and formality have in interaction, for these terms may have a different interpretation in other cultures. Analysts often, for example, contrast Asian deference to the role that deference would play in British culture, and therefore make the assumption that Asian cultures are in general more concerned with status difference and roles in society than British culture. There may be an element of truth in this stereotypical view, but it is also the case that deference in many Asian cultures is conventionalised, just as indirectness is conventionalised in English, and therefore we should question whether societies as a whole can be seen as in fact tending to be concerned with social distance simply because deference is conventionalised within the language.* **Proponent** *has drawn attention to the fact that understanding honorific use in Japanese is an inferential process; it cannot be assumed that honorifics simply indicate deference or politeness. Several theorists (***Proponents***) writing on the function of indirectness, honorifics and deference in the Japanese language, have stressed the degree of flexibility that there is within so-called deference cultures, depending on the context, to stress one's role and one's position in society, whilst at other times, stressing camaraderie and positive politeness. They also all draw attention, particularly* **Proponent**, *to the degree to which honorifics and deference markers do not simply indicate respect, but signal a host of other elements, for example elegance and refinement.*
-Problematising	6	*It seems that when we analyse deference in other cultures, Western critics often impose their understanding of how deference and negative politeness are signalled and interpreted within British English upon other cultures whose linguistic and cultural norms may be at variance with these Western norms, or who may signal deference and politeness in different ways.*
-Problematising	7	**(Paragraph 2)** *What is striking about the examples which* ***I*** *gave from* **Opposed Writer's** *book above is that when talking about British politeness, she felt it necessary to give an example of another culture's politeness norms.*
-Citing Support	8	*When judgements are made about other cultures in relation to politeness, it is often either to accuse other cultural groups of impoliteness, to praise them for their excesses of politeness in relation to our own, or to judge excesses of politeness as superficial and superfluous (***Proponent***).*
-Providing Evidence	9	*As an example, we might like to consider the critical judgements which are often made about the way that Arabs speak English in relation to impoliteness, which often seem to suggest that Arabs are too direct or rude (***Proponent***). This may*

		be due to a different pragmatic emphasis between English and Arabic, whereby in most dialectal varieties of Arabic, it is generally acceptable to signal solidarity with others by the use of forms which would seem too direct in English (for example, commands). Within most varieties of dialectal Arabic, indirectness when used to intimates can signal an excessive concern with distance or even antipathy.
-Problematising	10	*This judging of Arabs as too direct when they are speaking English is a profoundly ideological judgement, perhaps having more to do with the current political climate, and it may be that we signal our negative feelings towards certain nations through statements about their politeness and impoliteness norms. Such judgements are part of an evaluation not of the language but the people and the cultural values that a particular group is assumed to hold.*

This section has discussed each individual disagreement move and step. The section which follows, Section 5.3, will report on the results of text analysis to provide a deeper insight into understanding the structure of TAL disagreement instances.

5.3 Results and discussion

Having examined 69 disagreement instances in 16 TAL articles, this section will report and discuss the primary findings of this study—the length and distributions of TAL disagreement instances, pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves, move sequences and their constituent steps. The frequency of occurrence and length in words of each disagreement instance, move and step allow description of the typical distributional and/or structural characteristics of TAL disagreement instances, moves and steps.

5.3.1 Distribution and length of TAL disagreement instances

All the TAL articles in this study were examined to see if they followed the IMRD (Introduction-Method-Results-Conclusion) structure. However, it was found that the IMRD structure would not work for all the TAL articles in this study. In some of the TAL articles, it appeared that only the Introduction, Body and Conclusion sections were present. However, all the TAL articles in this study did seem general to fit into an IBC (Introduction-Body-Conclusion) structure. In applying the IBC structure, it was found that TAL disagreement instances were distributed differently across the Introduction-Body-Conclusion structure. As shown in Table 5, TAL disagreement instances were most frequent in the Body section, fairly uncommon in Introduction and Footnote, but rare in the Conclusion.

Table 5: Distribution of disagreement instances within TAL articles

	Introduction (n=69)		Introduction & Body (n=69)		Body (n=69)		Conclusion (n=69)		Footnote (n=69)	
Disagreement Instances	4	5.8%	2	2.9%	49	71.01%	3	4.35%	11	15.94%

The corpus of TAL articles was 149,294 words (see Appendix 6). The longest TAL article was 20,317 words and the shortest was 5,146 words. The sub-corpus of TAL disagreement instances, which contained a total of 69 identified and agreed disagreement instances found in 16 TAL articles, was 45,319 words. Hence, the TAL disagreement instances occupied an average of 30% of TAL article length. The TAL disagreement instances ranged from 44 to 4,385 words with an average length of 625 words. The longest TAL disagreement instance (MS4.1) was 4,385 words (or 77% of the TAL article length) and the shortest (MS6.9) was 44 words (or 0.32% of the TAL article length).

5.3.2 Distribution of disagreement moves

Having examined 69 disagreement instances in 16 TAL articles in the main study, it was found that disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles was typically expressed through the use of a two-level internal structure of moves and steps. More specifically, it was proposed that a TAL disagreement instance was expressed through the use of potentially three moves across the data: (1) Pre-disagreement Move, contained 7 steps; (2) Core-disagreement Move, contained 11 steps; and (3) Post-disagreement Move, contained 12 steps (see Table 8, Table 9 and Table 11).

Pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves were found to occur with varying degrees of frequency in the TAL disagreement instances examined. Table 6 shows how frequently the TAL authors used the disagreement moves. This also assisted in determining whether a particular move was considered obligatory, conventional or optional, in accordance with Kanoksilapatham's (2005, 2011) and Amnuai & Wannaruk's (2013) criteria (see Section 3.2.2). As can be seen in Table 6, core-disagreement move was the most important and frequent move for this study. In other words, each TAL author used core-disagreement move, sometimes more than once (which indicates occasional instances of cyclical organisation –see Section 5.3.4 for detail), in each disagreement instance in each TAL article. Obviously, no disagreement instance

existed without core-disagreement move. Core-disagreement could therefore be considered obligatory as it was found to occur in 100% of the TAL disagreement instances. On the other hand, pre- and post-disagreement moves also occurred frequently in this study. In fact, post-disagreement move was the second most frequent move in this study. Pre-disagreement move was the third most frequent. They were conventional as post-disagreement move occurred in about 87% of the TAL disagreement instances, and pre-disagreement move 86%. In short, this study indicates that TAL disagreement instances can be represented as a three-move structure comprising one obligatory move (core-disagreement move) and two conventional moves (pre- and post-disagreement moves).

Table 6 provides the overall occurrence or distribution and percentage of pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves across 69 TAL disagreement instances that comprised the data. The percentage, calculated by dividing the number of TAL disagreement instances containing a particular disagreement move by the total number of TAL disagreement instances, is also given in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of disagreement moves

Disagreement Move	**N=69**	**%**
1) Pre-disagreement	59	85.51%
2) Core-disagreement	69	100%
3) Post-disagreement	60	86.96%

The fact that core-disagreement move occurred in all disagreement instances of all TAL articles suggests that it is an essential part of a TAL disagreement instance. The reason for the 100% occurrence is that core-disagreement move is the key component where disagreement is expressed. Obviously, there must be a disagreement in a disagreement instance. As for the other two disagreement moves, most TAL authors used pre- and post-disagreement moves frequently but they may not always be present in a TAL disagreement instance. The results also provide support for using Stadler's (2006) pre-, core- and post-disagreement category to highlight that core-disagreement move is the central and obligatory move and pre- and post-disagreement moves are additional and conventional moves in TAL disagreement instances. In brief, the TAL authors always used a core-disagreement move and frequently used a pre- and/or post-disagreement move to express disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles.

5.3.3 Length of disagreement moves

Within TAL disagreement instances, pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves varied a great deal in length (i.e., number of words), as shown in Appendix 6. The longest disagreement move in the TAL article corpus was post-disagreement which totaled at 27,542 words (or approximately 18% of the corpus). The longest post-disagreement move (in MS4.1) was 3,051 words (or 54% of the TAL article length) and the shortest (in MS6.10) was 5 words (or 0.04%). The shortest disagreement move was core-disagreement, totaling at 4,617 words (or approximately 3% of the corpus). The longest core-disagreement move (in MS13.3) was 271 words (or 3% or the TAL article length) and the shortest (in MS10.4) was 7 words (or 0.10%). Post-disagreement move was a conventional move in this study but accounted for more words (on average, 399 words in length) than pre- and core-disagreement moves. On the contrary, core-disagreement move was an obligatory move in this study but accounted for, on average, 67 words in length. By identifying this rather large difference in length among the three disagreement moves, it seems safe to say that in general, a post-disagreement move is more likely to be longer and a core-disagreement move is more likely to be shorter. It is interesting to note that by far the greatest part of a TAL disagreement instance is taken up with a post-disagreement move.

5.3.4 Disagreement move sequences

This study noted not only the distribution of pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves, but also whether they occurred sequentially within different sections (for example, Introduction, Body, Conclusion and/or Footnote) of a TAL disagreement instance and the extent to which a particular move sequence was used. The frequency of move sequence allows this study to extend its analysis in several ways. First, as shown in Table 7 below, pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves did not necessarily occur in a rigidly fixed sequence in TAL disagreement instances. In other words, TAL disagreement instances were not always composed of sentences belonging to 1 (which is a numerical indicator given to Pre-disagreement Move), followed by 2 (Core-disagreement Move), and then followed by 3 (Post-disagreement Move). Many TAL disagreement move sequences were linearly structured. Table 7 shows that approximately 52% of them proceeded from pre-, core- to post-disagreement move without recursion (see the 1-2-3 disagreement move sequence in Table 7). However, Table 7 also indicates that TAL

disagreement instances were rather different in sequence of moves employed in each TAL disagreement instance. The TAL disagreement instances could range from a one-move sequence, to a two-move sequence, and then to a three-move sequence. Moreover, some TAL disagreement move sequences were cyclical. In approximately 22% of them, each disagreement move was repeated many times in a single disagreement instance (see disagreement move sequences 2a-2i in Table 7). Hence, the results provided in Table 7 show that there was no obligatory disagreement move sequence because the disagreement move sequences differed in that some were optional but frequent, while others were optional but infrequent. However, the results point to the existence of four provisional disagreement move sequences in this study (see disagreement move sequences 1-4 in Table 7). It is also quite evident from Table 7 that the 3-move (pre-core-post-disagreement-move, or 1-2-3) sequence had a greater frequency of occurrence in TAL disagreement instances. Furthermore, the 1-2-3 disagreement move sequence occurred more frequently in the Body section of TAL disagreement instances.

In brief, at its simplest level, a TAL disagreement instance most probably contained three moves (i.e., 1-2-3, or 3-move sequence). However, there were other variations; for example, a disagreement instance might contain a series of move cycles combining three disagreement moves (see disagreement move sequences 2a-2i in Table 7), two disagreement moves (i.e., 1-2 and 2-3, or 2-move sequence) or even one disagreement move (i.e., 2, or 1-move sequence). However, it is important to point out here that this study would not claim that the lists of disagreement moves and move sequences present in this thesis are exhaustive.

Table 7 shows the overall frequency of occurrence for each disagreement move sequence and possible cyclical organisations or cycling of certain moves in each section (Introduction, Body, Conclusion and Footnote) of 69 TAL disagreement instances. To compare how often the TAL authors used a disagreement move sequence, the number of TAL disagreement instances using that disagreement move sequence was denoted as a percentage of the total sample.

Table 7: Distribution of disagreement move sequences in TAL disagreement instances

Disagreement Move Sequence	Introduction (n=69)	Introduction & Body (n=69)	Body (n=69)	Conclusion (n=69)	Footnote (n=69)	%
Three-move:						
1) 1-2-3	3		27	2	4	52.17%
Cycle of three moves:						
2) (a) 1-2-1-2-3		1	3			21.74%

(b) 2-3-1-2-3			1		
(c) 1-2-3-1-2-3			4		
(d) 1-2-1-2-3-1-2-3			1		
(e) 1-2-3-1-2-3-2-3			1		
(f) 1-2-3-1-2-1-2-3-2-3		1			
(g) 1-2-3-1-2-1-2-3-1-2-3			1		
(h) 1-2-3-1-2-3-1-2-3-1-2-3				1	
(i) 1-2-3-1-2-3-1-2-1-2-3-1-2-3			1		
Two-move:					24.64%
3) (a) 1-2	1		5	2	
(b) 2-3			5	4	
One-move:					1.45%
4) 2				1	

In summary, based on the results shown in Table 7, none of the disagreement move sequence seemed to be always present in a TAL disagreement instance. However, Table 7 suggests that the 3-move sequence appeared to be used more than the other move sequences in this study, particularly in the Body section of TAL disagreement instances. It is also important to note that all the disagreement instances in this study contained one to three disagreement moves. However, these three disagreement moves might not occur in a rigidly fixed sequence, which allowed for a number of possible variations. In other words, the TAL authors varied in expressing disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles. However, many TAL authors used the 1-2-3 (pre-core-post) disagreement move sequence most frequently to express disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles.

The cyclical disagreement move sequences were usually longer than the linear ones because they often contained several subpoints which were dealt with one by one. This is in line with the concept of 'cyclical organisation of moves' which was first mentioned by Dudley-Evans (1986) and found by many other researchers within different sections of research articles in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics (Peacock, 2002, 2011; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Amirian, Kassaian & Tavakoli, 2008; Basturkmen, 2009; Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013) (see Section 3.2.2.2 for detail). Hence, the notions of 'cycle of moves' and 'obligatory move', 'conventional move' and 'optional move' are helpful in explaining long TAL disagreement instances. There was only one obligatory disagreement move—core-disagreement move—which occurred several times and almost always in the middle of a cycle (for example, 1-2-3-1-2-3-1-2-1-2-3-1-2-3). Core-disagreement move was thus considered the 'head' move in a cycle. Pre-disagreement move was a somewhat free-standing move which usually occurred in the pre-head position, but it could also occur in the 'post-head' position. If pre-disagreement move was absent, then core-disagreement

move was the initial element in a cycle, followed by post-disagreement or possibly pre-disagreement move. On the other hand, post-disagreement move was most likely to occur in the 'post-head' position.

Some 1-2-3 sequences in the TAL articles might bear some resemblance to the structure proposed by Swales' (1990) CARS model, particularly when the 1-2-3 sequence occurred in the Introduction section of a TAL article. The reason is that, when some TAL authors created a research space in the Introduction section of a TAL article, they might be creating a research space and disagreeing simultaneously. Research space can be created either contentiously or not. However, the major difference between Swales' (1990) CARS model and TAL disagreement instances in this study is that the disagreement instances were frequently found in other non-Introduction sections of TAL articles (see Table 5). More importantly, there was a central core-disagreement move in all TAL disagreement instances and some disagreement instances in this study contained only two or one move which did not fit the CARS model. As mentioned in Section 3.2.2, Swales (1990) found that most of the article introductions he examined had the three sequenced moves he put forward. However, as for TAL disagreement instances in this study, only the core-disagreement move was obligatory, and the other two moves—pre-disagreement and post-disagreement—were not obligatory. The reasons for the higher frequency of the 3-move sequence will be discussed in Section 6.2.2.

5.3.5 Distribution of disagreement steps

After examining the disagreement moves, an in-depth text analysis was conducted to gain a deeper understanding of which disagreement steps might occur within the three disagreement moves of the 69 disagreement instances in the 16 TAL articles in this study. To reiterate, first, using move analysis, a disagreement instance could broadly be structured into one to three moves: pre-disagreement, core-disagreement and post-disagreement. Then, using move analysis again, pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves could be realized by a variety of different steps. It is important to also point out here that the disagreement steps in this study were provisional and not exhaustive.

5.3.5.1 Distribution of pre-disagreement steps

As can be seen in Table 8, seven pre-disagreement steps were found to occur with varying degrees of frequency in the TAL disagreement instances examined. 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' was found to occur, and recur, most frequently in pre-disagreement move in this study. 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was the second most frequent pre-disagreement step. The other five pre-disagreement steps (see pre-disagreement steps 3-7 in Table 8) are infrequent. Based on the results, it seems that no pre-disagreement step is obligatory. 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research', which occurred in approximately 71% of TAL disagreement instances, could be considered as a conventional pre-disagreement step. All the other pre-disagreement steps, or pre-disagreement steps 2-7 in Table 8, were optional as they occurred less than 60% of TAL disagreement instances.

In this study, there were a total of 16 TAL articles and 69 TAL disagreement instances (n=69). However, some TAL disagreement instances did not have any pre-disagreement steps but some instances had more than one. Table 8 below shows the distribution of seven different pre-disagreement steps in TAL disagreement instances in this study.

Table 8: Distribution of pre-disagreement steps in TAL disagreement instances

Pre-disagreement Step	N=69	%
1) Stating Opposed Writer's Research	49	71.01%
2) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	35	50.72%
3) Stating TAL Author's View	15	21.74%
4) Citing Support	8	11.59%
5) Presenting Example	7	10.14%
6) Raising Question	4	5.80%
7) Problematising	1	1.45%

5.3.5.2 Distribution of core-disagreement steps

Core-disagreement move was considered an obligatory move which could be realized through 11 disagreement steps. In view of the results, all the core-disagreement steps (see core-disagreement steps 1-11 in Table 9) were used optionally in TAL disagreement instances. However, 'Problematising' was the most frequent core-disagreement step in this study, occurring at a relatively higher frequency of approximately 54% in TAL disagreement instances. The

other ten core-disagreement steps (see core-disagreement steps 2-11 in Table 9) were found to occur less frequently.

The TAL authors in general preferred to use less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps to disagree with their opposed writer's research, while explicit core-disagreement steps were less favoured. In this study, the use of less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps was disproportionate. The TAL authors used a total of 148 less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps in all 69 disagreement instances in this study, as opposed to only 12 explicit core-disagreement steps found in 9 disagreement instances. Based on the results, less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps significantly outnumbered explicit core-disagreement steps in this study. In brief, the TAL authors preferred to express their core-disagreement move in a less explicit and implicit way.

The abundant less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps offer further evidence to support Salager-Meyer's (1999) findings that indirect disagreement expressions are frequent in papers written after the 1930s. The reasons the TAL authors preferred expressing their disagreement in a less-explicit and implicit way will be discussed in Section 6.2.4.

Table 9: Distribution of core-disagreement steps in TAL disagreement instances

Core-disagreement Step	N=69	%
1) Problematising	37	53.62%
2) Counterclaiming	30	43.48%
3) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	26	37.68%
4) Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party	11	15.94%
5) Disagreeing Explicitly	9	13.04%
6) Dissociating from Opposed Writer's Research	7	10.14%
7) Stating Opposed Writer's Research	4	5.80%
8) Raising Question	2	2.90%
9) Providing Evidence	2	2.90%
10) Citing Support	2	2.90%
11) Denying	1	1.45%

The less-explicitness or implicitness in the core-disagreement move in this study was sometimes achieved by the combined effect of more than one core-disagreement step. In other words, the TAL authors used (in the order of frequency in Table 10) combinations of less-explicit and/or implicit core-disagreement steps to disagree with their opposed writers' research. For example, the most frequent core-disagreement step identified in TAL disagreement instances

was ‘Problematising’. ‘Problematising’ was often used in combination with other steps to express core-disagreement in a less explicit way, most frequently of which was ‘Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction’. As shown in Table 10, the TAL authors used the combination of ‘Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction’ and ‘Problematising’ most frequently (approximately 16%) in this study. ‘Problematising’, however, could also be used independently to express core-disagreement in a less explicit way.

Interestingly, although its frequency of occurrence was not high, the explicit core-disagreement step found in this study was used in combination with different less-explicit and/or implicit core-disagreement steps (see 17-20 in Table 10). This suggests that the TAL authors combined ‘Disagreeing Explicitly’ with, most notably, ‘Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction’ to, perhaps, soften the explicit disagreement.

Table 10: Distribution of combinations of less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps

1) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Problematising	11	15.94%
2) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Counterclaiming	6	8.70%
3) Counterclaiming +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Problematising	2	2.90%
4) Problematising +Counterclaiming	2	2.90%
5) Dissociating from Opposed Writer’s Research +Stating Opposed Writer’s Research	2	2.90%
6) Problematising +Citing Support	1	1.45%
7) Problematising +Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party	1	1.45%
8) Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Problematising	1	1.45%
9) Dissociating from Opposed Writer’s Research +Problematising +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
10) Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
11) Counterclaiming +Providing Evidence +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
12) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Citing Support +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
13) Counterclaiming +Raising Question	1	1.45

14) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Dissociating from Opposed Writer's Research	1	1.45%
15) Denying +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	1	1.45%
16) Stating Opposed Writer's Research +Providing Evidence	1	1.45%
17) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction + **Disagreeing Explicitly**	1	1.45%
18) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction + **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Problematising	1	1.45%
19) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Counterclaiming +Problematising	1	1.45%
20) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
21) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Counterclaiming	1	1.45%
22) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Counterclaiming +Problematising	1	1.45%
23) **Disagreeing Explicitly** +Problematising	1	1.45%

5.3.5.3 Distribution of post-disagreement steps

Table 11 shows 12 step options for realizing post-disagreement move in this study (see post-disagreement steps 1-12). 'Counterclaiming', at a high frequency of approximately 74%, emerged as the most frequent post-disagreement step (see Table 11). The second most frequent post-disagreement step was 'Problematising', followed by 'Providing Example' and 'Citing Support'. Based on the results, the high frequency of occurrence, and recurrence, of 'Counterclaiming' indicated that it was considered as a conventional post-disagreement step in this study. It was not obligatory because although this step might occur more than once in some TAL disagreement instances, it might not occur at all in others. All the other post-disagreement steps, or post-disagreement steps 2-12 in Table 11, were optional. However, there were two frequently used post-disagreement steps; namely 'Counterclaiming' and 'Problematising'. Moreover, although 'Counterclaiming' was used in both core- and post-disagreement moves, this step was used more frequently in the post-disagreement move (compare Table 9 and Table 11). Section 6.2.3 will discuss possible rationales for using specific pre-, core- and post-disagreement steps. This is an unexplored but interesting research area.

Table 11: Distribution of post-disagreement steps in TAL disagreement instances

Step	N=69	%
1) Counterclaiming	51	73.91%
2) Problematising	36	52.17%
3) Providing Evidence	31	44.93%
4) Citing Support	23	33.33%
5) Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction	21	30.43%
5) Stating Opposed Writer's Research	14	20.29%
6) Raising Question	11	15.94%
7) Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party	10	14.49%
8) Stating TAL Author's View	4	5.80%
9) Forestalling Criticism	3	4.35%
10) Explicit Disagreeing	2	2.90%
11) Denying	2	2.90%
12) Dissociating from Opposed Writer's Research	1	1.45%

5.3.6 Disagreement step sequence

As the results show, most steps within pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves were optional and occurred below 60% of TAL disagreement instances. The only exception were 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' in pre-disagreement move (71%) and 'Counterclaiming' in post-disagreement move (74%) which were considered as conventional in this study.

Another interesting finding is that many steps could occur at any point in a disagreement instance. For example, 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research', 'Raising Question', 'Providing Example' and 'Citing Support' could occur in pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves. On the other hand, 'Problematising', 'Counterclaiming', 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' and 'Explicit Disagreeing' could occur in both core- and post-disagreement moves.

Moreover, there did not seem to be any consistent sequences of steps within pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves, although the TAL authors might subconsciously use some identifiable disagreement move sequences for TAL disagreement instances. While certain steps sometimes appeared in combination with certain others, they did not always appear in that sequence. For example, while the 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' step was sometimes followed by the 'Problematising' step, these two steps were sometimes used independent of each other or in combination with some other steps. Hence, steps were not linearly structured within pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves in this study.

5.4 Chapter summary

On the basis of text analysis, this study develops a model of move structure for TAL disagreement to describe how the TAL authors typically expressed disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles. The TAL disagreement model (see Diagram 3) shows a three-move structure comprising an obligatory core-disagreement move and conventional pre- and post-disagreement moves. The word count shows that core-disagreement move was generally shorter than pre- and post-disagreement move. The frequency analysis shows that the TAL authors most frequently used the pre-core-post-disagreement-move sequence to express disagreement with named researchers most frequently in the Body section of TAL articles.

The text analysis also shows that each of the pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves identified in this study was found to contain a number of different steps. Moreover, seven of the core-disagreement steps found in the TAL articles were found to be similar to some spoken disagreement strategies mentioned in previous studies (namely, 'Disagreeing Explicitly', 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction', 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party', 'Counterclaiming', 'Problematising', 'Raising Question', and 'Providing Evidence'). The frequency analysis reveals that the TAL authors most frequently used less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps to express disagreement with named researchers in the TAL articles.

The next chapter, Chapter 6, will discuss in detail why the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do.

Chapter 6

INTERVIEW

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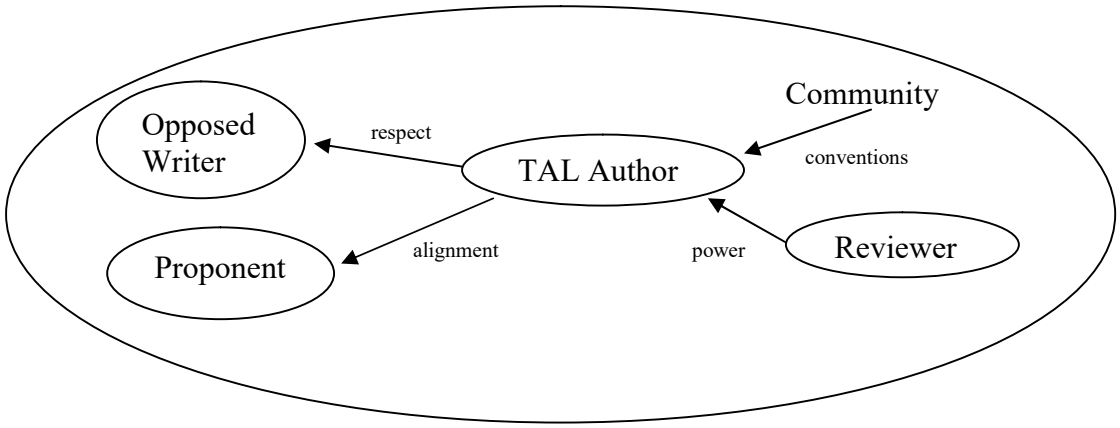
6.1 Chapter introduction

As discussed in Chapters 1, 3, 4 and 5, the research methodology of this study comprises two main approaches—text analysis and interview—which serve to answer two general research questions posed in Chapter 1: (1) How is disagreement with named researchers expressed typically in the TAL articles? (2) Why do the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do? To answer the first research question, text analysis in Chapter 5 explicated the recurrent moves and steps in the internal structure of TAL disagreement instances. To answer the second research question, 11 interviews (i.e. eight TAL authors were interviewed for the main study and three interviews from the pilot were re-used in the main study) were used to corroborate the text analysis and learn their reasons for the disagreement moves and steps which they employed.

A model specifically devised for this study will be used in this chapter to explain the different reasons given by the TAL authors in the interviews. In this model, the TAL authors sit at the centre of a network of people. The TAL authors are trying to negotiate their identities as an individual in relation to four influences: journal editors and reviewers, disciplinary community or readers, opposed writers and proponents (see Diagram 4).

Diagram 4: TAL author model



When the TAL author as an individual is a self, they are saying what they believe to be true. However, the pressure from the reviewers and editors, who are in a more powerful position in publication process, can change what and how the TAL authors express disagreement in their articles. More importantly, the TAL authors need to observe and follow the conventions of disagreement-writing knowledge expected by the disciplinary community or the readers. For example, when they disagreed, they need to observe or follow disciplinary conventions of being implicit, non-agonistic and cautious. Moreover, the TAL authors may choose to show respect and politeness to their opposed writers. Furthermore, the TAL authors may also align with some proponents to add weight to their disagreement. In other words, the TAL authors may choose to be polite to the opposed writers and align with the proponents, but they are imposed upon by the reviewers/editors who exert power and disciplinary community which exerts conventions. Hence, the TAL author as an individual is attempting to maintain their own identity in the face of power of the editors and reviewers, conventions of the disciplinary community, respect or politeness to the opposed writers and alignment with the opponents.

This model has been arrived at as a result of the interviews which will be described below. Although this model is to some extent inspired by that used in Academic Literacies studies, it differs because it is based on professional academics rather than students. The academic literacies model is largely concerned with how the epistemological issues of writing, power relations and identity creation may have on students' writing in higher education. There are, of course, similarities as well as differences between the novice and experienced writers. For example, they both write within a disciplinary community. The difference is that the student writers seek to become a member of the disciplinary community whereas the TAL authors are established members of the disciplinary community. When the students chose to disagree with established opposed writer, they place themselves in a more vulnerable position than the TAL authors. This chapter will relate each relevant reason which has been identified from the interviews to a point in Diagram 4; namely, editors and reviewers, disciplinary community or readers, opposed writers, and proponents. The chapter will therefore report and discuss different reasons which have been identified from the interviews.

6.2 Results and discussion

This section will report and discuss the responses of the TAL authors concerning the interview questions elaborated in Section 4.4.5. The interviewees for the main study were 11 professors (see Section 4.4.2 for detail). These semi-structured interviews took place face-to-face. The interview questions focused on four main themes. The first theme contained questions related to the TAL authors' awareness of their use of disagreement moves and steps. The second theme contained questions on how the TAL authors structured their disagreement instances and why they structured the disagreement instances the way they did. The third, where most of the interview was taken up, was related to the TAL authors' corroboration and reasons for using certain disagreement steps. The fourth focused on author recall.

The results of the interview data analysis will be presented and discussed in the following section, including implicit knowledge, choice of pre-core-post-disagreement sequence, choice of certain disagreement steps, choice of less-explicit/implicit disagreement, and author recall. It is worth recalling here that the interview results of this chapter complement the results obtained from text analysis presented in Section 5.3. The TAL authors' answers presented below will include anonymized extracts, and where appropriate, extracts from their interview transcripts will be quoted.

6.2.1 Implicit knowledge

The first interview question was how the TAL authors usually phrased their disagreement when they disagreed in published writing with other named theoretical or applied linguists. The purpose of this warm-up question at the start of each interview was to initiate a discussion around writing disagreement in the TAL articles. This question was usually met with "*I have no idea*", "*I don't know. I never thought about it*", "*Obviously that's a very difficult question to answer*" or "*I don't think about it*". The TAL authors' initial responses seemed to indicate that their disagreement-writing practices were largely unconscious. One of the TAL authors, MS2, seemed to confirm this when they stated a little more explicitly, "*I think I do it quite unconsciously*". However, they said, this question also started their thinking about how they expressed disagreement in writing. They said what might rise to their level of conscious awareness when they were writing disagreement was how to write it politely but firmly to show

respect to their opposed writers but, at the same time, show their view clearly. None of them said they would use the phrase "*I disagree with you*". MS10 added that they did not want to give offense and MS7 added they did not want to create enemies for themselves. MS8 also said they worked in an area where they would not necessarily have results that they could use to disagree so they would probably be much more likely to critique at a theoretical or methodological level. Moreover, MS11 said that they usually did not reject prior research out of hand because it was genuinely only a partial rejection of the prior research.

This implicit knowledge of writing found more support in the answers given for the next two interview questions. The TAL authors were asked if they were directly taught to write disagreement in the way they did and if they had referred to models for their written disagreement. The aim of the questions was to find out how the TAL authors' knowledge of writing disagreement was acquired. Their answers revealed that none of them were taught to write disagreement. They also said that they did not refer to models for their written disagreement. Instead, MS2, MS5, MS7, MS8, MS9 and MS11 emphasized the role of their implicit knowledge in the process of writing disagreement. This implicit knowledge, according to the TAL authors, was developed over a long time and absorbed from various sources including extensive reading, good examples, undergraduate course and more experienced experts. However, most of their answers centred on one source: learn by reading or learn by example. For example, MS7 and MS9 said they learnt it through reading:

"*But did I learn it myself? Yes, through reading other stuff.*"

"*I think a lot of academic writing is a conventional style and you get that style from reading. I'm not referring to model. I think you just absorb good writing when you're reading academic stuff. I think you just absorb a good style and unconsciously modeling your own style on that. That's how I think it would apply to me anyway.*"

On the other hand, MS2 said their implicit knowledge was absorbed at undergraduate level, learnt by example and influenced by a more experienced expert.

"*I did an English degree in early 1970s but was very much in the tradition where you were supposed to be critical. You're supposed to argue against a case or for a case. I supposed maybe that was a kind of training but I think since then I've just done it by example really,*

learn by example. I'm a very strong believer in disagreement because I think it's a way of improving ideas and getting a deeper understanding of what's happening. The person I suppose I'm most influenced by is **More Experienced Expert***, who I have worked with for a long time. He's been a very strong influence on my ideas about academic writing.*"

This seems to be in line with the concept of epistemology as implicit and discipline-specific ways of academic writing knowledge discussed in the academic literacies model (see Section 3.3.2). The interviews reveal that the knowledge of writing disagreement is implicitly understood and the TAL authors use their implicit knowledge to guide them in the process of writing disagreement. Many of them attribute their implicit knowledge to their participation in the intellectual activities of the discipline and acquaintance with the good style of writing. The TAL authors are proficient and seasoned writers, but they are not fully aware of the details of how they disagree in writing. Hence, move analysis and interview are used as tools to make explicit how the TAL authors write disagreement in the TAL articles.

6.2.2 Choice of pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence

The results of text analysis in Table 6 (in Section 5.3.2) shows that a TAL disagreement instance could contain pre-, core- and/or post-disagreement moves. Table 7 (in Section 5.3.4) shows that these three moves could occur in various move sequences, but the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence is more frequently used than any other move sequences.

When the TAL authors were asked the warm-up question at the start of interview, their answers about how they usually phrased their disagreement pointed to a three-part structure. They talked about how they first reviewed and expressed respect to prior research, then expressed disagreement by raising limitations, and then tried to justify the position or view. In the following excerpt, MS16's description of how they usually phrased their disagreement with other named researchers in published writing is a typical example:

"*You state "it is generally agreed that…", "most pragmatists would agree that…", and then you might say "however", and then "there are reasons for rejecting this view". That would be a standard way of doing it.*"

Interestingly, their answers for this general question are consistent with their answers for the subsequent specific text-based questions. During the interviews, the TAL authors were shown their own TAL disagreement instances. Then, they were asked (1) where they found they expressed disagreement most in their own disagreement instances, (2) how the disagreement was structured in their disagreement instances, and (3) why they chose to write in the particular ways exemplified in their disagreement instances. These text-based questions were to check and corroborate the text analysis which had been carried out on their own TAL disagreement instances. The questions also stimulated a more in-depth discussion of the motives behind disagreeing in a particular way.

When the TAL authors were asked where they found they expressed disagreement most in their own disagreement instances, they pointed to the segments which were identified as core-disagreement move. This in turn suggested that a disagreement instance could be composed of a category of pre-, core-, and post-disagreement moves, which supported the results of the text analysis shown in Table 6 (see Section 5.3.2).

Moreover, when the TAL authors were asked how their disagreement instances were structured, they described, in varying degrees of specificity or detail, how they first presented a claim which they were disagreeing with (pre-disagreement move), then disagreed with the claim (core-disagreement move), and then gave reasons or evidence against the claim (post-disagreement move). These three parts specified by the TAL authors also provided further evidence to support the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, as shown in the results of text analysis (see Section 5.3.2 and Section 5.3.4). MS16, for example, summarized this pre-core-post-disagreement category best in the following quote:

> "*There is a claim presented and that* **Opposed Writer's** *view was presented. I explicitly disagree and I go on to give some evidence against the claim made.*"

When the TAL authors were asked in the interviews why they used the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, their answers centred on three different kinds of motivation: persuasion, reviewer power, and convention. Persuasion is an internal motivation, and reviewer power is an external motivation. Convention is between internal and external motivations, or an external motivation which has been internalized.

The first kind of reason, as pointed out in the interviews, is a strategy of persuasion. In using the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, the TAL authors said they tried to set up some doubt in the readers' mind in the pre-disagreement move before they disagreed with their opposed writers' argument in the core-disagreement move so that the readers were ready to think that their argument was better. The TAL authors also said that they indicated that they agreed with their opposed writers in the pre-disagreement move to make it easier for some readers to accept their argument before they expressed their disagreement in the core-disagreement move. MS16, for example, said as follows:

> "*...and the other is for persuasion. There's a little bit of persuasion goes on, you know, by indicating that you are agreeing with certain people, you might placate them. You might make them feel happier to accept your argument.*"

Moreover, according to the TAL authors, persuasion was also in the reasons or evidence given by the TAL authors in the post-disagreement move after they had expressed their disagreement in the core-disagreement move to persuade the readers to agree with the TAL authors, rather than the opposed writers. In brief, in using the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, the authors primed the readers to accept the TAL authors' argument as preferable. As MS7 said:

> "*So that other people can understand my thinking and could be convinced by it. So it's a matter of, I suppose you would probably use a general term as much as putting up the evidence for why I disagree. If I say I disagree, it's not gonna help anybody. If I explain why I disagree, actually it might help them understand and possibly persuade them to agree with me rather than them.*"

This brings to mind Aristotle's rhetoric by means of logos, pathos and ethos (Kennedy, 2007). When a discerning and virtuous speaker (ethos) constructs an argument or communicates what is true (logos), the speaker needs to use rhetoric to persuade the hearer favorably toward the speaker and unfavorably to the opponent (pathos).

The second kind of reason, which may account for some aspects of the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, is power of reviewers. MS2, for example, explained that they made decisions about how to disagree in response to the reviewers of the articles. MS2 also pointed out that they had to refine what they said in response to what the reviewers wrote. The

unequal power status between reviewers and authors is reflected here. The power of the reviewers has been well-documented in academic literacies (see Section 3.3.3). This is just further evidence that reviewers occupy a powerful position to suggest or require specific changes made to manuscripts. For example, when asked about the reason for using the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence, MS2 said:

> "*...and that's why when we publish articles like this, we get them sent back. We are asked to rewrite them, and interestingly when you say how do I make decisions about how to disagree? Probably very much in response to the reviews, reviewers of the articles, and this article went through about three levels of review. So each time I wrote, I was refining what I said in response to other people said to me, and refining my strategy, and it's difficult thing to do.*"

Third, the TAL authors said they followed a convention. PS2 also called it "*a sort of set of different elements that make up the whole speech act of disagreement*" and "*a normal part of presentation of academic work*". The TAL authors pointed out in the interviews that they had to first explain to readers both inside and outside the field what possible propositions, positions and/or views there were in the field (in the pre-disagreement move). They then showed where their academic alignments were or pointed out there were problems with the opposed writers' propositions, positions and/or views (in the core-disagreement move). After that, they presented reasons or new evidence to justify their own propositions, positions and/or views and turn the readers against the opposed writers' propositions, positions and/or views (in the post-disagreement move). The following excerpts taken from PS3 demonstrate this:

> "*...so first I had to explain what the field look like and this is largely expository. It's to say what possible views there are in this field, and then to dismiss some of them as inaccurate and to develop the rest.*"

> "*...so to me that's a normal part of presentation of academic work where you start with the current or previous knowledge. You say now what I'm doing and present new evidence and then you re-evaluate what's gone before in the light of that some of which you will still agree and some of which you may disagree with. So that's to me a very normal pattern.*"

In summary, these interview results reveal that persuasion, reviewer power and convention are the possible reasons for the higher frequency of the pre-core-post-disagreement move sequence (see Table 7 in Section 5.3.4).

6.2.3 Choice of specific disagreement steps

The results of text analysis in Tables 8, 9 and 11 (in Section 5.3.5.1, Section 5.3.5.2 and Section 5.3.5.3) show the steps which occurred frequently in the pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves. During the interviews, the TAL authors were also shown certain individual steps which had been identified in their own TAL disagreement instances. They were asked how certain steps were structured and what the functions of these steps were. These text-based questions were to corroborate the text analysis and offer reasons for using certain steps.

However, the TAL authors did not say much about some disagreement steps (for example, 'Problematising' and 'Questioning') but simply corroborated what would have been expected about these steps. For example, the TAL authors agreed that they used 'Problematising' to disagree less explicitly with their opposed writers ("*I'm showing my disagreement with they're saying up here but it might not be as clear as it could be*" and "*it's also that expression "a number of issues" because sometimes that expression is often used to talk about the issues that are still problematic*"). When they were asked why they used 'Problematising', by the TAL authors gave the following answers. First, PS2 said they used 'Problematising' to raise limitations "*which show that that thinking is not as full and as rich or as helpful as they think in this way*". Moreover, MS2 said they used 'Problematising' to "*take the wind out of* **Opposed Writer's** *sails*" and try to reduce the impact. Third, MS10 said they problematized their opposed writer's research in order to dismantle the opposed writer's position. Here is an excerpt from MS10's reply:

> "*...and then I problematize it and then I try and construct a slightly different position which is not entirely antagonistic but it's what you might call dismantling a position. Very often we take a position that is influential and then challenge it slightly or adjust it or dismantle it...*"

The TAL authors' answers are consistent with the function of 'Problematising' described in Section 5.2.1.2.1. In other words, when the TAL authors were asked why they indicated a problem in certain aspects of an opposed writer's research, they simply agreed that they

disagreed less-explicitly with certain aspects of an opposed writer's research, without actually disagreeing with the opposed writer as a person.

It is important to emphasise here that author's corroboration is vital for this study; however, this section will focus only on some disagreement steps which the TAL authors offered not only corroboration, but also other relevant answers related to Diagram 4. The disagreement steps which will be explicated in this section are 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research', 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction', 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party', 'Counterclaiming', 'Providing Evidence' and 'Citing Support'.

6.2.3.1 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research'

As pointed out in Section 5.2.2.1, 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' is an important pre-disagreement step because the TAL authors used this step to remind the readers of certain aspects of a named opposed writer's research and orient towards the content of their disagreement. This reason is borne out by the interviews. The TAL authors said they had to put their opposed writers' research forward first because the readers might not know or remember exactly what the opposed writers had said. In other words, they introduced to the readers what the disagreement was about, otherwise the readers would not understand the criticism. As MS3 stated it:

> "*...but you also have to put the other person's view forward first because the person reading this may not know or may not remember exactly what* **Opposed Writers** *said. It also makes the point stronger if instead of some general criticisms of* **Opposed Writers***, I actually pick out exactly what it is that I'm criticizing. That's my idea.*"

The use of 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' may also be due to fairness and respect to an opposed writer. This consideration of fairness may be related to how power relations operate within an interpretative research tradition in an egalitarian culture when the TAL authors disagreed with an equally, if not more, established opposed writer. As MS5 said (see the excerpt below), they presented their opposed writer's research in a neutral way to make it fair to the opposite point of view and to let the readers know both sides of the argument. This may also explain the TAL authors' preference to state neutrally an opposed writer's research (see Section 5.2.2.1 for detail).

"*Well, I suppose because it's fair...first of all, to make it fair to present their position…so the reader knows both sides of the argument…*"

6.2.3.2 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction'

The TAL authors agreed that they used 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' to genuinely, partially or superficially agree with certain aspects of their opposed writers' research (see Section 5.2.2.2 for detail). They also agreed that 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is a prelude to disagreement. The interviews with the TAL authors also shed some light on the complexity of reasons involved in the use of this step. The reasons given by the TAL authors show that 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is only partly motivated by politeness to their opposed writers.

The TAL authors seemed to use 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' in mainly two circumstances. In the first circumstance, there are two scenarios. In the first scenario, the TAL authors said they used this step when they were genuinely agreeing so they were being truthful. The second scenario is when the TAL authors were partially agreeing so they were being truthful to themselves and, at the same, being polite or showing respect to their opposed writers. In both scenarios, the TAL writers gave three reasons for using 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction': concession, separating out what is true and what is not true, and acknowledgment. First, concession plays an important role in both scenarios. The common answer for using 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' was that there was a specific point in an opposed writer's research which the TAL authors agreed with but there were also aspects which they saw as shortcomings. Hence, they said they conceded when they agreed on a specific point. They were therefore being truthful about what was true which might or might not involve politeness to the opposed writers. For example, MS2, MS5, MS9 and MS10 explained as follows:

"*You see, there's some value in their work because it does provide us with an understanding of…*"

"*I have to concede that there is partial agreement because it's true*"

"*I'm conceding that's true. It' is true so it's a concession but it's at the same time saying "but it's just not very useful.""*"

"*I would sort of call it concession.*"

Likewise, MS8 said they agreed with certain aspects of their opposed writers' research which were considered a common-sense view, "*I think that's a genuine agreement. Everybody recognises those difficulties…*". In so doing, MS8 also said they intended to mitigate their disagreement because "*we're aligning very much with the people that we appear to be slightly criticising here*". In a similar vein, MS2 also said it "*was more digestible to more people*" when they were conceding more.

Second, some TAL authors said they used 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' to point out what was true or not true in their opposed writers' research. Hence, the TAL authors were agreeing with what was true in the opposed writers' research. In these cases, 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is an agreement when the TAL authors separated out what they agreed with from what they disagreed with in the opposed writers' research. Thus, they mentioned the positive before they expressed some particular disagreement. For example, MS3, MS4 and PS3 gave similar reason:

"*I don't disagree with everything that* **Opposed Writers** *said. So I want to separate out what I agree with from what I disagree with…*"

"*I'm not just disagreeing. I'm trying to express the fact that we have a partial agreement and a partial disagreement and I'm trying to point out to the reader exactly what the disagreement is. Because one of the things you learn when you write is you have to say what you think. You also have to say what you don't think…*"

"**Opposed Writer** *is a wonderful man so you have to treat him with respect. You have to be careful in what you attribute to him. He's been badly misinterpreted so I want to present it neutrally. He is the person who inspired all my work. But I disagree with some of the things he said. As it happens, I agree with the first thing and I disagree with the second. I make it clear I disagree with the second and I give evidence against it. The first thing, everyone sort of agrees with that, so I'm not arguing for that…*"

When asked for further reasons, MS3 said they wanted to forestall criticisms because if they did not agree with what was true, then the opposed writers could argue back and said the TAL

authors were wrong so they needed to forestall what the counter-argument might be before it happened. On the other hand, when asked for further reasons, MS4's reason was to achieve accuracy.

The third reason for using 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' in both scenarios mentioned above is acknowledgement. In some cases, the TAL authors said they gave positive evaluation about certain aspects of their opposed writer's research because they wanted to acknowledge the contribution of their opposed writer's research. However, there were certain aspects of the opposed writer's research which they disagreed with. MS3, MS7, MS9 and MS11, for example, said it was only fair, and maybe polite, to give credit where credit was due:

> "*It's politeness strategy but it's also true. I mean I'm not saying that their work hasn't any merit at all…*"
>
> "*…in some ways you can say agreement, I suppose. But I certainly want to give* **Opposed Writer** *credit where credit is due and for that* **Opposed Writer** *deserves credit.*"
>
> "*There is some interest and value in* **Opposed Writers' research**, *and it is fascinating to read. So I wouldn't want to be seen to be kicking the whole 100% of it out. That would be wrong and it would weaken me because clearly there's value in it. I'm just saying it's limited. I just want to say "yes, there's quite a lot of good in there, however…". I think it's stronger than "it's all bad". That would be playground.*"
>
> "*I thought it would be unfair to reject the system out of hand because it is something that has been influential and has helped researchers, you know, provided a starting point. So I thought it was only fair to acknowledge that it has its value. It's not a valueless contribution.*"

When asked for further reasons, MS2 said they also demonstrated that they had some knowledge of and appreciated what the opposed writers had done. Hence, they were disagreeing from a point of knowledge which would strengthen their argument ("*You can gain a lot of status by giving some credit to the people that you're arguing against because you're demonstrating that you know who they are and what they're good at, but "I really respect you but…". So you build them up and then break them down.*""). On the other hand, MS5 said it was out of respect for

their opposed writers that they mentioned the positive before they expressed disagreement. Likewise, MS11 and PS2 attributed this to politeness or a desire to save the opposed writers' face. As PS2 said, "*I suppose it is also a face strategy. If you completely rubbish somebody who is very well-known, then you run the risk of being attacked more*". On the other hand, MS9 said it was used to show politeness to their readers. As MS9 said, if there clearly was value in their opposed writers' research but they did not acknowledge it, they would appear weak and withering to their readers by being rude to their opposed writers because it was the readers whom they wanted to persuade ("*I don't care at all what the people who I name here think. It's the readers of the journal that I'm writing. That's my audience. That's why it's pointless being rude.*").

The second circumstance is when the TAL authors were superficially agreeing so they were just being polite to an opposed writer. In certain circumstances, the TAL authors said they would still begin with the positive even if they strongly disagreed with their opposed writers or were critiquing a position and/or view which they felt hostile to. MS3 and MS10 confirmed this in saying:

> "*I mean if I really disagree with something strongly, if I can see anything good in it at all, as long as I can see some good in it, then I will always give the partial agreement first and then try to disagree*"

> "*If I have been absolutely honest, if I were critiquing a position that I feel very hostile to, and I'll be honest, I feel very hostile to* **Opposed Writers' research** *personally. But I would still have the concessionary paragraph because I want to acknowledge in one way or another that it's important work, it's been very influential, whatever. But I will still have that concessionary "yes, this is important" but problematize it and then set out the reasons why I think it's problematic. So it's a general pattern.*"

When asked, their reasons were politeness ("*because I don't want to give offense. I think it is a politeness strategy that people use*") and respect for their opposed writers. In these cases, 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' is also a politeness strategy which is motivated by their respect to the opposed writers, so "*it's not really an agreement*", as MS4 put it. It is also not unlikely that 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction' may be motivated by the wish to be polite

to an opposed writer in power. The TAL authors may not perceive or express the relationships between their opposed writers and themselves in terms of power. They are more likely to talk about the relationships in terms of mutual respect.

6.2.3.3 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'

The TAL authors' corroboration played an important role in identifying 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party', as explained in Section 5.2.1.2.3. The specific names of the opposed writers and third party were used in questions posed to the TAL authors during the interviews, and the writers agreed that they were disagreeing with the opposed writers through their agreement with the third party. When the TAL authors disagreed with, particularly either an equally or more established, opposed writer, they could use this less-explicit disagreement step for three reasons. The first reason is, when the TAL authors disagreed less explicitly with their opposed writers through agreeing with a third party who disagreed more explicitly with the opposed writers, the TAL authors said they were not criticizing or disagreeing in their own voice. Instead, it was the voice of the third party who was criticizing or disagreeing with the opposed writers' research. The TAL authors also pointed out that it would also appear textually that it was the third party who brought up the issue and the TAL authors just brought the third party in their writing. The readers would have to infer that, since the TAL authors brought the third party in, they obviously agreed with what the third party said. This answer echoes Mulkay's (1985) and Locher's (2004) findings (see Section 2.4.3.4). Mulkay (1985) finds that this disagreement strategy could be used to displace the responsibility of disagreement onto a third party so that the language users (i.e. speakers or writers) appeared, textually, not to be the initiator of the disagreement. Locher (2004) also finds that this strategy could be used to mark the content of a speaker's view as coming from a third party. MS11 confirmed this in saying:

> "*...it's a passive construction so that I'm not the person who is criticizing, followed by a criticism from* **Third Party***, so I have not actually in any way come clean about my own criticism. It's implied...*"

Moreover, when the TAL authors disagreed by agreeing with a third party, they could back their disagreement up with a third party's view. The TAL authors said they usually cited a third party who was on their side or had said something which supported what they were saying. This

would help to demonstrate that the TAL authors were not alone in their argument because there were other researchers who agreed with them and had agreed with them in print. As MS5 explained:

> "*In academic writing, you're supposed to provide justification for what you say. You can't make statements or assertions which are unsubstantiated, which are not backed up, and one way to make an assertion is to use other people's point of view. So, if you like, what I'm saying is, the assertion is there is some value in the* **Opposed Writer's research** *but it got problems, and then I back it up first with other people's view and then with my own…*"

The third reason is that 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party' could add power to the TAL authors' disagreement. The TAL authors said that it was important who they were aligning themselves with or which side they were associating themselves with in order to disagree with another side. When they aligned themselves with distinguished and influential third party, the third party would increase the status of their disagreement. Moreover, they also demonstrated that their view was actually established with a distinguished and influential third party when they disagreed with their opposed writer through agreeing with a distinguished and influential third party who disagreed with the opposed writer. This would also add weight to the TAL authors' disagreement. A short extract from MS2 below will illustrate this view:

> "*Because I have to demonstrate that my point of view actually recognized and established with a certain group. So I'm associating myself with another paradigm. In order to demolish one paradigm, I've got to associate myself with another paradigm.* **Opposed Writers** *are probably two of the most important thinkers in the entire world of sociology, and in a sense you need to know that they are big people. They are bigger in sociology than* **Opposed Writer** *is in Intercultural Communication, and* **Third Party** *is big in Critical Second Language Writing. So these are big people and that's another point that you expect your readers at this level to understand who the big people are and who the little people are. So that's in there as well. So who you are aligning yourself with is extremely important. It's building your status as a writer. It's building your face, if you like, as a writer. You're aligning yourself with the big people.*"

6.2.3.4 'Counterclaiming'

The TAL authors agreed that they used this implicit disagreement step to contradict or offer alternatives when they used expressions which signaled 'Counterclaiming' to describe this step in the interviews. These expressions are consistent with the linguistic signals of 'Counterclaiming' presented in Section 5.2.1.3.1. For example, when MS4 explained how they used this step, they said "*but then I go on to say actually the alternative scenario is right because…*" and "*that's where you sort of start producing your counter-argument*". As for the reasons, MS8 said they used 'Counterclaiming' to "*shift the ground from* **Opposed Writer's research**" because "*I think it is sort of a contradiction*" and to add a difference of view to their opposed writer's research ("*it's a different argument*", "*it's a difference of view*" and "*it's a difference of perspective*"). MS9 used 'Counterclaiming' because their opposed writer's research and theirs were not at all alike ("**Opposed Writer's research** *is based on data which are nothing like mine, so that's where I'm taking issue*", "*I'm taking issue with his criticism because I don't think the way he defines it is anything like the way I research it*", "**Opposed Writers** *have used the work in a completely different way to me*" and "*my counterclaim is…*") and there was a comparison between the past (or opposed writers') and present (or TAL authors') research ("*I think our science is more mature and we don't make silly claims any longer.*", "*what we understand now is that you can't do that…*", "*I'm making here a case for how we have got much better at this business of doing research.*", and "*this is my position. I think we are careful. I think we are robust. I think that we have cause for modest, confident. That's where we are. We are not wildly or form the extreme.*"). MS10 used 'Counterclaiming' to challenge their opposed writers on a particular view because "*I take a different view*", "*what I'm doing is just setting up a different way of looking at…*", "*it's a counter interpretation*", "*I see it a bit differently*".

However, more interestingly, the purpose of using this disagreement step could involve persuasion. MS11 explained that they used 'Counterclaiming' to contrast two alternatives but did not explicitly state which one was better. There was an implication there, however, that the TAL author's alternative was the preferable one. Hence, in this case 'Counterclaiming' was a strategy to help gradually prime or persuade the readers to accept the TAL author's alternative as preferable. MS11 explained as follows:

"*The first sentence is just a statement that contrasts two methods. It doesn't say which one is better, but there's an implication there that* **TAL Author's research** *is the better alternative. It's implied. It's not stated but this sort of organization of the sentence and the fact that it's the second of the alternative implies that this is the preferable one.*"

Furthermore, the TAL authors also indicated that they were disagreeing quite strongly without spelling it out because they presented a different proposition, position and/or view. This seems to suggest that 'Counterclaiming' is probably an implicit but strong disagreement strategy. This point of view has some parallel in some previous disagreement studies (Pomerantz, 1984; Baym, 1996) (see Section 2.4.3.2 for detail).

6.2.3.5 'Providing Evidence'

'Providing Evidence' is an important step, particularly in a post-disagreement move, as pointed out in Section 5.2.3.1. The TAL authors agreed that they used this step to present relevant examples or results as evidence for three reasons: politeness, substantiation and support. The first reason is politeness towards the readers. When the TAL authors presented their readers with evidence which contrasted their opposed writers' claim, they said they did not explicitly tell the readers that they were right and the opposed writers were wrong. Instead, they were inviting the readers to review the evidence they presented so that the readers could work out for themselves that the opposed writers were wrong. As MS11 pointed out:

"*In this case, it might be politeness towards the reader because I'm inviting the reader to draw their own conclusion. I'm saying there is a discrepancy here, look for yourself. I'm inviting them to see that* **Opposed Writer's** *claim is wrong, rather than telling them because I suppose that's politeness towards a peer reader, rather than telling them.*"

Moreover, the TAL authors said they could provide evidence by referring to examples or results to substantiate their proposition, position and/or view, as discussed in Section 5.2.3.1. MS8 summarized this purpose neatly:

"*…we are claiming it should be done here, with the view to then spending the rest of the paper talking about how we think it can be done. So that claim is going to be substantiated later on…*"

Furthermore, 'Providing Evidence' could be used to support the TAL authors' proposition, position and/or view, as also pointed out in Section 5.2.3.1. When they supported their proposition, position and/view with results or examples from their own or other researchers' studies, the TAL authors said they were presenting the readers with evidence which implied that the opposed writers' claims were wrong. MS11 said the following in this concern:

> "*...and the supporting evidence from Figure 3 and the commentary on Figure 3 in the following paragraph, so I'm allowing the reader to reach their own conclusion about the discrepancy between the facts and* **Opposed Writer's** *claim. By presenting them with Figure 3, they can see for themselves that* **Opposed Writer's** *claim is not right.*"

6.2.3.6 'Citing Support'

As a result of the interviews, the TAL authors revealed some reasons associated with agreeing and acknowledging, as well as enlisting support and strengthening disagreement for citing other sources or proponents. The TAL authors' accounts are consistent with the functions of 'Citing Support' described in Section 5.2.3.2. MS3 talked about how they cited other sources or proponents as means of showing "*I am acknowledging* **Proponent** *here*" and "*I agree with* **Proponent's** *argument so I need to give* **Proponent** *credit*". Hence, the TAL author acknowledged their debt to other sources or proponents for propositions or views. This debt was usually expressed in terms of agreeing with or positively evaluating the proponents' propositions or views.

On the other hand, MS10 talked of how they aligned with other sources or proponents as means of support, "*I think because* **Proponent** *puts it very well. I enlist* **Proponent's** *support there*". Moreover, MS4 said when they cited other distinguished researchers in their support, this would strengthen their argument. As MS4 pointed out in the interview:

> "*You disagree and then you cite other people who also agree with you in your support. You're trying to show that you're not alone in this argument. There are other distinguished people agree with you and of course if other people have agreed with you in print particularly one of them is* **Proponent***, that strengthens your argument.*"

6.2.4 Choice of less-explicit and implicit disagreement

The text analysis presented in Section 5.2.1 shows that there was a preference for less-explicit and implicit disagreement over explicit disagreement. There were different types of core-disagreement steps used by the TAL authors, ranging on a cline from 'Explicit' to 'Implicit' core-disagreement move. 'Disagreeing Explicitly' (such as "*I disagree with* **Opposed Writer**" or "**Opposed Writer** *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*") could be considered to stand towards the 'Explicit' end of the cline. Towards the middle of the cline of 'Less-explicit' stood the steps of 'Problematising', 'Questioning' and 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party'. Towards the 'Implicit' end of the cline stood the steps of 'Counterclaiming' and 'Disagreeing with a School of Thought'. Table 9 (in Section 5.3.5.2) shows that the disagreement instances are rather different in the number and type of core-disagreement steps used in each individual disagreement instance. It is quite evident that less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps appear to be used more frequently than explicit core-disagreement steps.

The literature suggests that implicitness and less-explicitness are usually motivated by politeness (for example, Brown & Levinson, 1987). In Brown & Levinson's (1987) face-saving model, disagreement is considered a threat to positive face which has the potential to damage social relationships and hurt the chances to achieve goals. Brown & Levinson thus listed two positive politeness strategies to defend a speaker's self-image and satisfy a hearer's face-wants: "Seek agreement" and "Avoid disagreement" (which includes "Token agreement", "Pseudo-agreement", "White lies" and "Hedging opinions"). Moreover, in previous disagreement studies, Kuo (1994), Holtgraves (1997), Rees-Miller (2000) and Locher (2004) explicitly linked disagreement strategies to politeness, although Rees-Miller and Locher also identified other factors as potentially influencing the choice of disagreement strategies, such as, among others, institutionalised context, power and topic. Hence, it was initially thought that implicitness and less-explicitness might be explained by reference to politeness only.

To test the hypothesis that politeness was the main motivation for choosing not to use explicit core-disagreement steps, the TAL authors were asked in the interviews about the reasons for preferring not to use explicit core-disagreement steps. However, they said that politeness is only one of the reasons. The following excerpt from MS4 illustrates this:

"*It's not just politeness. I mean it's a recognition that, you know, there are many different ways of looking at a problem and that one might not actually be totally right. I mean I think that's a careful kind of scholarly approach. It's not just trying to be polite for the sake of being polite.*"

In fact, eight reasons were given by the TAL authors. Their answers centred on showing evidence, implicitness, non-agonistic reasoning, appreciation, caution and persuasiveness, respect to opposed writers and how power operates in British culture.

First, if the TAL authors had chosen to express disagreement explicitly, they said they would have needed to provide evidence as to why an opposed writer was wrong. However, they said very often there was not enough time and space for them to give all the evidence and produce an extensive piece of writing in order to substantiate an explicit disagreement. MS8 has the following to say in this regard:

"*You would have to produce an extensive piece of writing to substantiate those claims…so you can't afford to be too direct, because you haven't got the time and space to really substantiate all your difficulties…*"

Second, it was clear that implicitness and euphemism are deeply embedded in disciplinary convention. The TAL authors said it was not part of the disciplinary convention to write "*I disagree with* **Opposed Writer**" or "**Opposed Writer** *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*". The disciplinary convention was to be nuanced in the thoughts that they expressed. Academic writing was a level of discourse which masked the explicit. The TAL authors pointed out that it was conventionally seen as appropriate to be implicit and euphemistic as a way of writing disagreement in English. For example, regarding the reasons for preferring not to use explicit disagreement, MS9 stated:

"*It's seems a little bit simplistic, "we disagree". Well, I'll never say that. It seems a bit obvious as well. It's not part of the academic style to do that. It's part of the academic style to be a little bit nuanced in the thoughts you expressed. I can't imagine myself writing that under any circumstances. I don't think I have ever had said that, "we disagree". Of course in speech I would.*"

Third, it was not advisable to use an agonistic or ad-hominem strategy. The TAL authors said it was inappropriate, unworthy and unnecessary to make it personal or use an ad-hominem attack. It could become overtly contentious or agonistic if the TAL authors started disagreeing explicitly with their opposed writers, and the opposed writers then disagreed explicitly back to the TAL authors. According to the TAL authors, it would be much better to argue with the argument than to argue with the person. The following excerpt from MS7 demonstrates this:

> "*I don't want to make it personal. It would make it personal to say "***Opposed Writer** *is wrong" but "the statement is wrong"...so it's much better to argue with the argument than to argue with the person.*"

Fourth, on the other hand, it was necessary to show politeness to the readers. The TAL authors said that they showed that they fully understood and were being fair to the opposite point of view. However, they had a different view and gave their reasons or evidence for that view, or drew the readers' attention to some problems or defects in the opposed writer's position and/or view. The TAL authors said that they therefore invited the readers to review the evidence so that the readers would work out that the opposed writers were wrong and the TAL authors were right. It was therefore politeness towards the readers because rather than telling the readers what they should think, the TAL authors were drawing the readers' attention to discrepancy from which the readers could draw their own conclusions. Hence, the TAL authors said that it was pointless being rude because it was the readers of the journal (including the opposed writers) whom they wanted to persuade and the readers wanted to know why they disagreed. As MS11 said:

> "*...if it is a politeness strategy, it is politeness towards the reader of this article because rather than dictating to them what they should think, it's inviting them to work it out for themselves.*"

Fifth, it was a cautious scholarly approach for the TAL authors to prefer less-explicit and implicit, rather than explicit, core-disagreement steps. The TAL authors said that there was a recognition that they worked within a qualitative-interpretative tradition and there were many different ways of looking at a problem. There was not actually a single truth. Hence, they acknowledged that their proposition, position and/or view might not necessarily be an absolute truth. The TAL authors were also being cautious by not asserting too strongly or disagreeing too explicitly. As MS4, MS8 and MS10 said:

"*You don't want to assert things too strongly, sound arrogant and I may not be right after all. I acknowledge that…*"

"*...I think you'll find the majority of people, certainly writing within a qualitative interpretative tradition will normally be very careful about how they disagree. I will not do it openly.*"

"*None of the people I'm quoting here or myself working in this kind of way would have that kind of orientation to knowledge, if you see what I mean, that "this is being proven wrong therefore this is right and that is wrong". We don't work in that kind of way.*"

Sixth, the desire to be persuasive played a part. Perhaps unexpectedly, explicit core-disagreement steps were not seen as an effective persuasive strategy to convince and bring the readers over to the TAL authors' side. It was strategically contentious and aggressive, they said. They would be leaving themselves open to attack if they said "*I disagree with* **Opposed Writer**" or "**Opposed Writer** *is wrong /incorrect /mistaken*". There was a possible danger of loss of face for the opposed writers. If they started disagreeing explicitly with the opposed writers, they said they were laying themselves open to criticisms in turn. The TAL authors also pointed out that it was also not a good strategy to be too hostile towards the opposed writers because the opposed writers would just become resentful and not listen. As MS4 explained as follows:

"*...but I suppose if you want to persuade people and bring them over to your side, it's not a good idea to be hostile towards them because otherwise they will just get resentful and not listen, if you see what I mean.*"

On the contrary, as some TAL authors pointed out, less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps were a more effective persuasive strategy than their explicit counterparts. With less-explicit core-disagreement steps, for example, the TAL authors said they could problematise their opposed writers' positions and/or views, then used evidence to support their own propositions, positions and/or views that there were problems and left it to the readers to decide how serious the problems were and how much they would therefore decide to reject the opposed writers' positions and/or views. By not directly rejecting the opposed writers' positions and/or views, the TAL authors said they could lead the readers along with logic so that the readers

might arrive at the conclusion that the opposed writers were wrong by themselves. As MS9 stated it:

> "*I think it is partly because it's more effective as an argumentative strategy to get your reader to follow your logic and arrive at the conclusion that whoever you are disagreeing with is wrong by themselves. I think that's a more effective argumentative strategy than simply saying they're wrong because if you say, "they are wrong because…", then the reader might resist. The reader might think, "well, that's your opinion, you know, but I don't necessarily agree with that at all". But if you don't say "they are wrong" but you say "there are problems here", you know, look at this evidence and look at that evidence, and you don't state overtly. Then with luck you could lead them along so that they arrive at the conclusion that you want them to reach. I mean, you know, I don't like to be told and I think most academics would be the same. We don't like to be told what to think.*"

Seventh, the interview data also identified another type of reason—respect or politeness to opposed writers. The TAL authors said they preferred not to use explicit core-disagreement steps to save the face of opposed writers, who were usually recognized scholars of high repute. There was a recognition that both the TAL authors and opposed writers were part of a disciplinary community. Hence, they should acknowledge and appreciate the value of their co-members' work. There was also an understanding that research and solving problems were not easy. The TAL authors said they therefore tended not to reject the opposed writers' research out of hand. Instead, they preferred to mitigate their expression of disagreement. They said they usually acknowledged that certain aspects of the work the opposed writers had done was useful or they were building on the opposed writers' work, but they felt that they needed to pursue the opposed writers' arguments further. In so doing the TAL authors said they not only showed politeness but also respect to the opposed writers. For example, when MS8 and MS10 were asked about their preference for avoiding explicit core-disagreement steps, the following reasons were given:

> "*…and then of course there's a sense that you're part of an academic community of practice. You recognize and appreciate other people's work. I mean, you know,* **Opposed Writers**, *for example, are very well recognized people of high repute within Applied Linguistics. You're not going to go around rubbishing them in a hurry. These are clever people so one*

has to in a sense protect one's own position by not appearing to be overly critical of others without giving very good evidence for it…"

"*You don't want to disagree too explicitly with people that you normally aligning with. I think that's what going on here because people like* **Opposed Writers'** *work that we admire a lot and makes a lot of sense…*"

The eighth reason given by the TAL authors for preferring not to use explicit core-disagreement steps was related to how power operates in an egalitarian British culture. Some TAL authors pointed out that being explicit in expressing disagreement was not necessarily a voice of power. First, they worked in an egalitarian, rather than an authoritarian, culture. They had also reached seniority so they did not have to assert themselves in their field, as MS4 stated:

"*That's not the British way, is it? I mean just because you have reached a certain degree of seniority doesn't, at least in this culture, mean that you feel you're able to…you know. It's not an authoritarian culture. It's very much more egalitarian and in actual fact, it's generally young scholars who are much more critical and I think it's because they are trying to make their name…It's young people who are much more confident than older people because they haven't had the experience of being shown to be wrong I suppose, and of course they are trying to assert themselves. I'm not trying to assert myself in sociolinguistics. I don't have to, if I may say so.*"

MS8 elaborated this view further. In British culture, the way those who had power expressed disagreement was usually masked and guided by euphemism. Euphemism was the substitution for dispreferred explicit expression of disagreement in order to avoid possible offense and loss of face. MS8 stated the following in this regard:

"*…Bourdieu in his theory of social practice talks about institutional discourse, which is a level of talk which…you're always masking the direct, the obvious. You're finding ways of being proportionate, discrete, balanced, all those things because that's what a member of the elite or the dominant class does. That's how you talk…We're in a broadly European or western tradition. If you are a serious senior person, your talk is euphemized really so I think there's a very profound set of practices which in a sense inhibit you from being direct…*"

Moreover, as MS7 pointed out, the power was in the arguments, and not in the assertion that an opposed writer was wrong.

> "*To say "you're wrong" is weak because you are starting off with your conclusion. I mean it's very much better to imply it…if you say that and I say the opposite, that's just very weak and trivial. That's just childish…you let the arguments make you. The power is in the actual arguments you're making, not in the assertion that someone's wrong. This is what I would tell my students all the time when I'm teaching them how to write. Don't go bald-on-record. The worst you can say is "I think you're wrong". That's just ridiculous because you have no power. The arguments have power. So if they are massively weighty and difficult to answer, you're just piling them up and* **Opposed Writer** *is defeated, and you don't need to say "you're wrong" because it's not necessary.*"

Rather unexpectedly, but perhaps most interestingly, two of the TAL authors in the interviews talked about their personal experience of having being explicit and having suffered the consequences. When they published their research articles earlier on in their career, they said they were a little too explicit in challenging some established researchers. Hence, they started quite a big argument. They also revealed that they were taken aback by some of the negative reaction from some established researchers who felt insulted. They said if they were writing the research articles now, they would have disagreed less explicitly to avoid direct confrontation. The two TAL authors' personal experiences were summarized briefly below.

One TAL author said earlier on in their academic career they wrote a paper and disagreed with some major researchers. A core journal published it. However, there were some researchers who were very upset and felt insulted by the paper. Then, the researchers wrote a reply article in the same journal and disagreed very explicitly that the TAL author was wrong. The TAL author realized at that point that the researchers took the arguments very seriously. The TAL author said when they looked back at that paper, they would change quite a few things. When asked whether they had changed the way they disagreed since that episode, the TAL author said they were working on an article at the time of interview and they would probably critique broader issues, rather than just individuals. In other words, the TAL author had shifted into critiquing broader issues as opposed to just disagreeing with an opposed writer. It was not a question of being afraid, they said they just wanted to avoid that kind of very counter-productive argument.

Another TAL author had a similar experience. The TAL author disagreed very strongly with a position taken by other researchers in their first published research paper. The TAL author was challenging a large group of powerful researchers whose conclusions were thought simply not justified at all because all of the TAL author's data showed the opposite. It started quite a big argument and the reaction to the research paper was very negative from some researchers. The TAL author said they were taken aback by the rudeness of some established researchers who were being challenged. The researchers just became very rude not just in print but also at conferences. The TAL author said their disagreement was maybe a little too explicit. If they were writing it now, they could write it powerfully but less explicitly. When asked for reasons, the TAL author said a more experienced expert told the TAL author at the time to "*avoid leading with the chin*". The TAL author said they was leaving themselves open for that kind of attack by being directly challenging by saying "*you are wrong*" and "*you are wrong because you are collecting data in a very abnormal way*". In retrospect, the TAL author said they would probably not have said explicitly "*such and such person are wrong*". They would have said "*such and such person's idea is challenged by these results*". The TAL author also said they are still fighting over that particular research paper today so it has been a very long running argument.

Some TAL authors demonstrated that the avoidance of explicit language is a choice linked to the exigencies of publication. The highly mitigated disagreement does not necessarily represent the TAL authors' 'real' opinions. Some of the TAL authors expressed their disagreement much more explicitly in the interviews than in their articles. For example, they described their opposed writers as "*very sneering*", "*got it completely the wrong way round*", "*a polemical writer who writes very disagreeably and then rudely and dismissively about everybody really*", "*was stupid for saying that*", "*absolutely stupid*", "*a maniac*", "*mad*", "*over-rated*". They described the opposed writers' work as "*really bad and very narrow and their conclusions were simply not justified at all plus they were asking people to do stupid things*", "*rubbish*", "*such a statement is outrageous*", "*it's really strange thing to say*", "*it's just nonsense*" and "*it's a ridiculous thing to say*". However, when they expressed that same disagreement in the TAL articles, they chose to disagree less explicitly or implicitly. It seems, when there is a conflict between power and identity and the TAL authors had to choose between conformity and non-conformity in terms of

expressing their disagreement in academic articles, their answers were quite evident, as evidenced by the results of interview data in this chapter and text analysis in Chapter 5. They told of a story of conformity.

On the basis of the TAL authors' accounts, this preference for implicitness and less-explicitness is likely to be motivated by the desire to show evidence, implicitness, non-ad-hominem reasoning, caution, politeness, persuasiveness, respect to the opposed writers, and how power operates in British culture. It is therefore fair to say that politeness is only a small part of the motivation, but a useful one nonetheless.

6.2.5 Author recall

The last interview question aimed at finding out whether the TAL authors found it difficult to recall the reasons for using certain disagreement moves and steps. Their answers were opposite to each other. Some TAL authors said it was in their mind when they were writing (for example MS3), or they were not aware of it when they were writing (for example, MS4 and MS11), but have now forgotten what was in their mind at the time. MS11, in particular, said they could not remember what they were thinking about when they were writing the disagreement instances. MS11 revealed that they simply analysed their own writing during the interview. In answer to this question, MS11 said:

> "*I didn't recall them. I looked at the paper and worked it out from what I could see in front of me. Because I can't remember what I was thinking about when I was writing it. So this wasn't a recall of my thought processes when writing. I simply analysed my own writing in the way I'd have analysed somebody else's writing, to tell you the truth.*"

In contrast, some TAL authors, particularly MS5 and MS9, said they did not find it difficult to recall. As MS5 revealed, it was not difficult to recall but it took a little time and they had proven during the interview that it was possible to trace back to what their thought processes were when they wrote the disagreement instances. Below is the excerpt from the interview with MS5:

> "*It's not that difficult but it takes a bit of time. Obviously you have to think back to when you wrote it and you have to put it in a context of the people you are talking about. But I think as part of my work I say that strategies can be brought back from automatic to controlled. So I think I have shown that today that it is actually possible to think back…*"

MS9 also said they did not find it difficult to recall. They remembered exactly everything very clearly, even though they wrote it a few years ago, because it was very difficult and took a very long time to write. MS9's reply is as follows:

> "*Do I find it difficult to recall them? No. No. Writing is very hard and it takes a very long time. It's such a struggle to me that I remember exactly everything…*"

It is always difficult asking people to reflect on motives. It is even more difficult asking people to reflect on their writing motives years later. This difficulty is reflected in the opposite answers of the TAL authors. This raises the issue of how accurate the responses of the TAL authors are, given that the motives are post-hoc reconstruction. However, even if they do not consciously remember why they did what they did, it is not unreasonable to think that their original motives in writing might influence the way they interpret their own writing later on. Nevertheless, what the TAL authors reported as their motives or reasons during the interviews are taken as true. Although there is room for doubt about the reliability of their motives, there is still reason not to discount them. Harwood (2008), who used interview-based approach, also reported the problem of writer recall. His solution was to ask the writers to discuss their own articles and re-read their own writing in order to avoid unreflexive responses. These suggestions were also used in this study. The TAL authors talked about only the disagreement instances, moves and steps they themselves had written. The TAL authors were also asked to re-read the disagreement instances identified in their own articles before and during their interview.

Interestingly, although the TAL authors may not be consciously or explicitly influencing each other in how they would disagree, there are similarities in their use of disagreement moves and steps. This could be that they use these disagreement moves and steps all the time, albeit unconsciously or intuitively, and are probably still using them when they write and having in mind the same motives or reasons for writing in the way that they do.

6.3 Chapter summary

Three main findings which have been obtained so far from the interviews can be summarized as follows. First, the interviews have enabled me to not only corroborate but also revise the TAL disagreement model shown in Section 5.2. This study also shows that interviews can be used to investigate the implicit academic writing knowledge that the TAL authors used to disagree in

their articles. Second, this study has tested the feasibility and value of using authors as specialist informants and coders. The TAL authors in this study are experts in language as well as their own subject. Although a few of them expressed difficulty in recall, most TAL authors, on the whole, recalled well. Moreover, while the meta-linguistic knowledge was implicit for the TAL authors, it took discussion to bring it to the forefront of their mind. This raises the question of whether authors from other disciplines would have the same level of meta-linguistic awareness. Third, it is possible to account for all the reasons which the TAL authors have given in terms of power of the editors and reviewers, respect or politeness to the opposed writers, alignment with the opponents, and conventions of the disagreement-writing knowledge in the discipline.

The next chapter, also the final chapter, will summarise the actual and potential outcomes of this study.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 Chapter introduction

This study has examined TAL disagreement instances via both text analysis and interview to shed some light on disagreement in an academic written context. It has been the purpose of this study to develop a move structure for TAL disagreement and explore the TAL authors' reasons for using certain disagreement moves and steps.

This concluding chapter will first summarise the major findings of this study and then discuss its contributions. Next, limitations of this study will be addressed and some possible directions for future research will be suggested. After that, this chapter will finish with some concluding remarks regarding this study.

7.2 Summary of findings

Two general research questions are posed in Chapter 1, which this study has sought to answer through text analysis of the TAL disagreements and interviews with their authors. The two research questions will be addressed and the answers to these two questions, or the major findings of this study, will be summarised in this section.

As discussed in Chapter 1, the first research question is to find out how disagreement with named researchers is expressed typically in TAL articles. A move structure has been developed for TAL disagreement, as shown in the TAL disagreement model (see Diagram 3), and three moves are proposed: pre-, core- and post-disagreement moves. These three moves are frequently but not always cyclical. The results show that the TAL authors most frequently use all three moves, or a pre-core-post-disagreement sequence, to express disagreement with named researchers in TAL articles. The two most frequently used pre-disagreement steps are 'Stating Opposed Writer's Research' and 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction'. The two most frequently used core-disagreement steps are 'Problematising' and 'Counterclaiming'. Among the post-disagreement steps, the four most frequently used are 'Counterclaiming', 'Problematising', 'Providing Evidence' and 'Citing Support'. Moreover, the TAL authors also

use less-explicit and implicit core-disagreement steps much more frequently than explicit core-disagreement steps. This model contributes to a better understanding of how disagreement with named researchers is expressed typically in TAL articles. The model also offers a tool of analysis that is able to capture the basic structure of a disagreement instance. It is interesting that seven disagreement steps found in this study are also mentioned in previous disagreement studies on spoken discourse. These disagreement steps include 'Disagreeing Explicitly', 'Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction', 'Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party', 'Counterclaiming', 'Problematising', 'Raising Question', and 'Providing Evidence'.

Diagram 3: TAL disagreement model

Pre-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Stating Opposed Writer's Research
	Agreeing with Contrastive Conjunction
	Stating TAL Author's View
Core-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Disagreeing Explicitly
	Problematising
	Raising Question
	Disagreeing by Agreeing with a Third Party
	Counterclaiming
	Disagreeing with a School of Thought
Post-disagreement Move:	
Step:	Providing Evidence
	Citing Support

The second research question is to investigate why the TAL authors write the disagreement moves and steps the way they do. Interviewing the TAL authors provides reasons for the frequency of the pre-core-post-disagreement sequence, the use of certain disagreement steps, and the preference for less-explicit and implicit disagreement. The reasons provided by the TAL authors could be interpreted as responding to four types of influence; namely, power of the editors and reviewers, respect or politeness to the opposed writers, alignment with the opponents, and implicit disagreement-writing expectations in the disciplinary community.

7.3 Contributions

This study represents an effort to address several theoretical, methodological and practical gaps mentioned in the literature review in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Hence, the findings of this study have practical, theoretical and methodological contributions for the fields of disagreement

studies, genre studies and academic literacies. This section will discuss each of these contributions below.

7.3.1 Theoretical contributions

Theoretically, this study extends previous work on disagreement, which is predominantly about spoken discourse (see Section 2.4.2), to written academic discourse. This study aligns TAL disagreement steps with disagreement strategies identified in spoken contexts. This in turn supports the insights of Mulkay (1985), Myers (1989) and Baym (1996) and shows the relevance of disagreement strategies in spoken contexts for written texts. Another extension to disagreement studies is concerned with the TAL disagreement model which has been developed in this study. The model is capable of adding to the work of Hunston (1993) in analysing and explaining disagreement in research articles. Although further research may be needed, the model is a useful start as a theoretical or analytical framework for future analysis and comparison of written disagreement in and across different disciplines, genres and cultures.

Moreover, in genre analysis, this study extends the concept of move and step to apply to segments within a text. Move analysis is generally used to analyse a whole section of a text (such as Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion or Conclusion) (see Section 3.2.1) or a whole text. However, this study shows that move analysis could also be used to analyse the move structure of segments within any section in a text. Move analysis offers a system of analysis which allows observations to be made on the repeated communicative functions found in not only a whole text and a whole section of a text, but also segments within any section of a text. Another extension to genre analysis is the move structure of TAL disagreement, or the TAL disagreement model. The move analysis in this study captures not only the typical organizational pattern and linguistic characterization of TAL disagreement, but also helps identify the frequency of occurrence of each disagreement move and step. The description of the move structure and linguistic characterisation adds to the knowledge of how professional research article writers express their disagreement.

Furthermore, this study extends the work on academic literacies to take account of expert writing. The academic literacies model has largely focused on students' writing (Lea & Street, 2006; Lillis & Scott, 2007). This study adds to the growing body of literature on the writing

practices of academics as professional writers (Lea & Street, 2006; Lillis & Scott, 2007). More specifically, it has highlighted the options, which can be linked to various pressures, TAL authors have to express disagreement.

In addition, this study has the potential to feed into other areas. It has relevance to work on citations (for example, Harwood, 2008a, 2008b) which so far has said very little about what follows a citation. The starting point of TAL disagreement in this study is always a citation (see Section 4.3.3). This study has also discussed about what follows a citation when the citation is a disagreement instance. The other potential contribution is within the study of argumentation and specifically rebuttal.

7.3.2 Methodological contributions

Methodologically, this study has demonstrated the value of interviewing the authors of the texts under study. The literature review reveals that only a few ESP genre analysts (for example, Anthony, 1999; Swales, 2004; Basturkmen, 2012) have interviewed the authors of their texts, although more ESP genre analysts recommend consulting specialist informants or authors (see Section 3.2.2.1.3). After a total of 24 interviews in the pilot and main studies, it can now be safely said that the interviews have three important advantages. First, interviews can be used to double check and corroborate a move analyst's understanding of the disagreement instances, moves and steps with the authors themselves. As discussed in Section 3.2.2.1.2, this study draws mainly on content to identify the disagreement instances, moves and steps. There is always a greater or lesser degree of subjectivity and indeterminacy in identifying a disagreement instance, move or step because what is intended can be expressed in various different ways with various degrees of explicitness or implicitness. Interviews can complement text analysis by reducing the subjectivity and indeterminacy of identifying a disagreement instance, move or step and increasing the determinacy of recognising the authors' intentions. The TAL authors, for example, were asked to corroborate the disagreement instances, moves and steps which had been identified in their articles before and during the interviews. The information from the authors informed the text analysis, thereby helping reduce the subjectivity and indeterminacy. Moreover, the interviews are also useful in comprehending the authors' intent when using certain disagreement moves and steps in the TAL articles. Second, interviews can be conducted to gain

additional and valuable insights, which cannot be discovered from the text analysis alone, into the authors' reasons for using certain disagreement moves and steps. The results of this study show that the interviews could, for example, give a warrant to discuss various possible reasons for less-explicitness and implicitness in order to provide a richer context for the discussion of the results. The third advantage is that interviews help bring in relevant explanations for the similarities and differences in the use of the disagreement moves and steps among different authors. The insights contained in extracts from these interviews throughout this study and the much improved analytical framework (i.e. the TAL disagreement model) are proof of the value of listening to the authors' experiences and writing practices.

Moreover, this study also combines text analysis with interview, which is not a common approach in ESP genre analysis (see section 3.2.2.1.3). This combined method not only helps answer the two research questions mentioned in Chapter 1, but also combines the advantages and offsets the limitations of both text analysis and interview. Text analysis of authentic written data allows for observation of patterns. Interviews with the authors in the data allow for in-depth insights into context-specific and writer-specific language choices. The two methods are complementary: text analysis is used in the development of the TAL disagreement model, and interview is used in the corroboration of the model. Used together, the two methods are much stronger than either would be alone.

7.3.3 Practical contributions

Practically, this study presents a pedagogically usable description of how professional research article writers, or more specifically TAL authors, express their disagreement. Students may be able to make use of the findings which this study offers to reflect on their own drafts when expressing disagreement in academic writing. The findings may also have wider implications for novice writers, EAP teachers, EAP material writers, dissertation supervisors and thesis supervisors. The literature review points toward specific hidden features, such as identity, voice or stance in which student writers may experience difficulties and need explicit treatment in consciousness-raising activities or instructions (Ivanic, 1998; Street, 2009; Hyland, 2012). The findings generated by this study may be used to raise and promote awareness so that students and novice writers may be armed with the tools needed to make informed choices about how to

disagree in academic writing. It is hoped that students and novice writers will draw on the relevant insights generated by this study and, in doing so, meet or reflect upon the disciplinary community's expectations when writing for dissertation, thesis and publications. The objective is not to be critical, but rather to point to an area which students and novice writers need to address because it carries the danger of misunderstanding, offense, negative evaluation and/or conflict.

7.4 Limitations and future research

As with any research project, despite the best intentions and precautions, limitations are unavoidable. Several limitations, however, need to be recognised in order to provide a foundation for future research. These can broadly be divided into three groups, which will be discussed in this section: practical, methodological and theoretical limitations and suggestions for future research.

7.4.1 Practical limitations

The model of TAL disagreement may be offered as a teaching/learning resource to students, novice writers, EAP teachers, EAP materials writers, dissertation supervisors and thesis supervisors, as mentioned above in Section 7.3.3. Disagreeing in academic writing deserves some forms of explicit treatment. The research findings in this study may be used in consciousness-raising activities and may be included in learning and teaching materials to point out various strategies for expressing disagreement in academic writing. However, it is less clear at this stage which forms of explicit treatment are effective at facilitating 'noticing' by students and enabling them to disagree effectively in their writing, and this is an area for future research. This study can only serve as a starting point for future research interested in the effects of explicit treatment on students. Other possible implications for future research include the teachability and learnability of some of the findings uncovered by this study. While these topics are interesting and worth further investigation, it was not the aim of this study to pursue them. Hence, such topics are left to future research and suggestions on how to provide explicit treatment best wait for further research.

7.4.2 Theoretical limitations

From the theoretical aspect, this study investigates disagreeing in only one type of written context (i.e. research article) in one specific discipline (Theoretical and Applied Linguistics). While there are some promising results, the TAL disagreement model described in this study is informed by understanding of the TAL articles in this specific research context and may not necessarily be representative of research articles at large. A similar investigation in other disciplines may yield different findings. Ideally, then, a next step for this study will be to compare the TAL disagreement model against other research articles in other disciplines. Another area meriting further investigation concerns gender difference as, for example, the individual who declined my invitation for research participation (see Section 1.1) ascribed disagreement and conflict to patriarchy. Such investigations may offer insights which were previously unnoticed.

7.4.3 Methodological limitations

All of the data in this study came from TAL articles written by British professors. It may be argued that this sample reflects the characteristics of a specific type of research article or a specific group of academics in a specific discipline and a specific culture, rather than of research articles in general or all the academics at large. The dataset of TAL articles is only a small part of academic English. It is likely that differences may occur according to different disciplines, genres and cultures. As such, this relatively small dataset would not allow much generalisation outside such a setting. Obviously, further investigation using a larger dataset with a primarily quantitative focus would have been more desirable to investigate the extent to which the findings from this study can be generalized. Future research could also investigate whether other disciplines may vary in regard to disagreement move and step choices. Future research using a larger amount of research articles from different disciplines may also allow a more thorough discovery of disagreement moves and steps.

Moreover, financial limitations precluded employing an independent coder. However, given that all the disagreement instances, moves and steps in this study were discussed with their writers, the confidence in coding was reasonably justified, although future research may include an independent coder.

7.5 Closing

A major motivating factor in this study, as expressed in Chapter 1, was to try to describe how disagreement is expressed in research articles in my own discipline. This study has made only a small contribution in providing data and interpretation in regard to analysis of TAL disagreement instances. However, the knowledge of disagreement in written contexts is far from complete. This study offers merely a starting point for its application and development. It is hoped that this research will continue and this study will serve as a base from which future research will further explore disagreement in other written contexts, disciplines and/or cultures.

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Appendix 1: Summary of previous disagreement studies

Article	Theoretical/Analytical Framework	Topic	Data	Field	Method	Focus
Pomerantz, 1984	Conversation analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: Selected agreement/disagreement turns ordinary conversations	Informal Non-academic	Selected examples	Categories, Strategies, Functions
Mulkay, 1985	Corpus-based written discourse analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Written: 80 letters	Academic (Biochemistry)	Corpus analysis & Textual analysis	Definitions, Categories, Strategies, Frequency, Functions, Similarities, Differences
Pearson, 1986	Conversation analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: 900-min transcribed spontaneous conversation	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Strategies, Frequencies, Categories, Examples
LoCastro, 1986	Speech act theory	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: Elicited responses about food tastes	Informal Non-academic	Elicited responses	Strategies, Frequencies, Examples
Sacks, 1987	Conversation Analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: Selected sequences from natural interaction	Informal Non-academic	Selected examples	Strategies, Functions
Myers, 1989	B&L's Politeness Theory	Denials of Claims (/Disagreement)	Written: 60 research articles & corpus of readers' comments & writers' revisions	Academic (Molecular Biology)	Selected examples & Text analysis	Strategies, Functions
Beebe & Takahashi 1989	Speech act theory	Disagreement	Spoken: Natural speech collected in notebooks & Discourse Completion Test	Informal Non-academic	Selected examples & Discourse Completion Test	Strategies, Frequency
Greatbatch, 1992	Conversation analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: Panel interviews	Informal & Formal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Categories, Examples
Kotthoff, 1993	Conversation analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: Transcribed dyadic disputes	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Strategies, Types, Differences
Kakava, 1993	Conversation analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: 2-hour transcribed undergraduate classroom discussion	Academic (History)	Conversation analysis	Definition, Frequency, Strategies, Functions, Styles.
Hunston, 1993	Written Discourse Analysis	Academic Conflict (Disagreement)	Written: 6 research articles	Academic (Biochemistry, Sociolinguistics & History)	Text analysis	Definition, Categories,

						Strategies, Functions, Differences
Kuo, 1994	Politeness	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken: 10-min phone-in radio programme	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Definition, Strategies, Functions.
Baym, 1996	Written Discourse Analysis	Agreement & Disagreement	Spoken & Written: Computer-mediated communication Usenet newsgroup	Informal Non-academic	Text analysis, Interviews, 2 sets of open-ended survey questions & Intercoder check	Definitions, Categories, Strategies, Functions, Frequencies, Similarities, Differences.
Holtgraves, 1997	B&L's Politeness	Disagreement	Spoken: Transcribed 8 experimental sessions where university students discussed one issue they disagreed on	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis & Intercoder check	Frequency, Strategies
Myers, 1998	Conversation Analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: Transcribed 2-hour discussions of 7 focus groups	Formal Non-academic	Conversational analysis & Focus group	Strategies
Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998	Conversation Analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: 164 arguing exchanged identified in university student discussions & 21 family arguments	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Types, Strategies, Functions
Salager-Meyer, 1999	Corpus-based Written Discourse Analysis	Academic Conflict (Disagreement)	Written: 90 generalist medical articles	Academic (Medical)	Corpus analysis, Text analysis & Specialist informants.	Definition, Frequencies, Differences, Strategies, Functions, Reasons
Rees-Miller, 2000	B&L's & Fraser's Politeness	Disagreement	Spoken: 22.5-hour seminar, 12-hour classes & 12-hour colloquia	Academic (History & Linguistics)	Pen & paper recording	Definition, Strategies, Categories, Frequencies, Functions
Scott, 2002	Conversation analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: 4 transcribed episodes of CNN TV news show *Crossfire*	Formal Non-academic	Conversation analysis & Corpus analysis	Definition, Linguistic features, Types, Frequencies, Functions, Similarities, Differences
Holmes & Stubbe, 2003	Conversation analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: Formal meetings in	Formal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Strategies, Functions

			professional work places in the government and corporate sectors (taken from the corpus of the Wellington Language in the Workplace project)			
Locher, 2004	Leech's & B&L's Politeness	Disagreement	Spoken: 14-minute argument among family & friends during a dinner conversation	Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Definition, Strategies, Frequencies, Functions
Cheng & Warren, 2005	Conversation analysis	Disagreement	Spoken: 29-hour, 260,000-word business discourses in the Hong Kong Spoken Corpus of Spoken English.	Formal & Informal Non-academic	Conversation analysis	Strategies Examples, Frequencies
Stadler, 2006	Speech act theory	Disagreement	Spoken: Transcribed televised panel discussions	Formal Non-academic	Conversation analysis & Questionnaires	Definition, Categories, Strategies, Frequencies, Functions

Appendix 2: A comparison between Swales' (1981) 4-move model, (1990) CARS model and (2004) amended CARS model

Swales' (1981) 4-move Model	Swales' (1990) CARS Model (1990)	Swales' (2004) Amended CARS Model
Move 1: Establishing the field: A: Showing centrality i) by interest ii) by importance iii) by topic performance iv) by standard procedure B: Stating current knowledge C: Ascribing key characteristics	Move 1: Establishing a territory: Step 1: Claiming centrality, and/or Step 2: Making topic generalisation(s), and/or Step 3: Reviewing items of previous research	Move 1: Establishing a territory (citation required) via: Topic generalisations of increasing specificity
Move 2: Summarising previous research: A: Strong author orientations B: Weak author orientations C: Subject orientations	Move 2: Establishing a niche Step 1A: Counter-claiming, and/or Step 1B: Indicating a gap, and/or Step 1C: Question raising, and/or Step 1D: Continuing a tradition	Move 2: Establishing a niche (Citations possible) via: Step 1A: Indicating a gap, or Step 1B: Adding to what is known Step 2: (optional) Presenting positive justification
Move 3: Preparing the present research: A: Indicating a gap B: Question raising C: Extending a finding	Move 3: Occupying the niche: Step 1A: Outlining purposes, or Step 1B: Announcing present research, Step 2: Announcing principal findings, Step 3: Indicating RA structure	Move 3: Presenting the present work (citation possible): Step 1: (obligatory) Announcing the present research descriptively and/or purposively, Step 2:* (optional) Presenting research questions or hypotheses, Step 3: (optional) Definitional clarifications, Step 4: Summarising methods, Step 5: (PISF)** Announcing principal outcomes, Step 6: (PISF) Stating the value of the present research, Step 7: (PISF) Outlining the structure of the paper
Move 4: Introducing present research: A: Giving a purpose B: Describing present research: i) by 'this'/'the present' signals ii) by Move 3 take-up iii) by switching to first person pronoun		

*Steps 2-4 are not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others

**PISF: Probable in some fields, but unlikely in others

Appendix 3: A compiled list of disagreement strategies from previous studies

Pre-disagreement Strategy	**Similar Strategy under Different Name**
1) 'Disagreement Introduction' (Stadler, 2006)	
2) 'Pre-disagreement Justification' (Stadler, 2006)	
3) 'Qualified Disagreement' (Leech, 2007)	
4) 'Quotation with Reference' (Baym, 1996)	
5) 'Opposed Claim' (Hunston, 1993)	
Core-disagreement Strategy	
1) 'Initial Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction'	=Pomerantz's (1984) 'Agreement Tokens', 'Asserted or Claimed Agreements', 'Same Evaluation Agreements' and 'Qualified or Weakened Agreements' =Mulkay's (1985) 'Agreement plus Disagreement' =Pearson's (1986) 'Qualified Response or *Yes, but…*' =LoCastro's (1986) 'Partial Agreement Followed by Disagreement' =Sacks' (1987) 'Initial Agreement' =Brown & Levinson's (1987) 'Token Agreement' and 'Pseudo-Agreement' **=Myers' 'Evaluative Comments'** =Beebe & Takahashi's (1989) 'Positive Remark and then a Subsequent Criticism, Suggestion or Request' =Greatbatch (1992) 'Agreement Preface' =Kotthoff (1993) 'Partial Agreement' =Kuo's (1994) 'Weak Agreement plus Contrastive Conjunction' =Baym's (1996) 'Partial Agreement plus Disagreement Tokens' =Holtgraves' (1997) 'Token Agreement' and 'Conditional Agreement' =Myers' (1998) 'Weak Agreement plus Disagreement' =Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Partial Agreement' =Holmes & Stubbe's (2003) 'Conventional Disagreement Strategy' =Locher's (2004) '(Partial) Agreement plus *But*' =Cheng & Warren's (2005) 'Positive Acknowledgement, (Mitigating Device), Disagree, Inductive or Deductive Rhetorical Strategy' =Stadler's (2006) 'Initial Agreement'
2) 'Question' (Scott, 2002)	=Kotthoff's (1993) 'Incomplete Question' =Hunston's (1993) 'Rhetorical Questions' =Baym's (1996) 'Challenging Questions' =Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Challenge' =Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Questions' and 'Rhetorical Questions' =Scott's (2002) 'Questions', 'Interrogatives with S-V inversion and/or *wh*-markers' =Locher's (2004) 'Objections in the Form of a Question'
3) 'Contradiction'	=Mulkay's (1985) 'Evaluation which is Directly Contrastive with the Prior Evaluation' =Pearson's (1986) 'Contradiction' =Hunston's (1993) 'Differential of Status' and 'Modification of Status' =Kotthoff's (1993) 'Turning Other's Point into Contrary Meaning' =Baym's (1996) 'Contradictory Assessments'

	=Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Contradiction' =Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Contradictory Statements'
4) 'Counterclaim'	=Kotthoff's (1993) 'Counterargument' =Muntigl & Turnbull's (1998) 'Counterclaim' and 'Alternative' =Holmes & Stubbe's (2003) 'Counterargument' and 'Alternative' =Cheng & Warren's (2005) '(Mitigating Device), Disagree, Deductive Rhetorical Strategy'
5) 'Direct Disagreement'	=Mulkay's (1985) 'Direct, Unmodified, Unqualified Disagreement' =Greatbatch's (1992) 'Prompt and Straightforward Disagreement' =Baym's (1996) 'Explicit Indicants of Disagreement' =Salager-Meyer's (1999) 'Direct Academic Conflict' =Cheng & Warren's (2005) 'Bald on-record Disagreement' =Stadler's (2006) 'Performative Disagreement'
6) Problematisation	=Beebe & Takahashi's (1989) 'Criticism' =Kotthoff's (1993) 'Modulated Negative Response' =Hunston's (1993) 'Problematised Opposed Claim'
7) 'Disagreement by Agreement with a Third Party' (Mulkay, 1985)	=Locher's (2004) 'Shifting Responsibility'
8) 'Irrelevancy Claim' (Muntigl & Turnbull, 1998)	=Kotthoff's (1993) 'Repeated Tries to Deny the Relevance'
9) 'Hint' (Stadler, 2006)	
10) 'Qualified Agreement' (Stadler, 2006)	
11) 'Misunderstanding Machinery' (Sacks, 1987)	
Post-disagreement Strategy	
1) 'Post-disagreement Justification' (Stadler, 2006)	=Kotthoff's (1993) 'Reasons for Opinion' =Holmes & Stubbe's (2003) 'Fuller Explanation for the Opposition' =Locher's (2004) 'Giving Personal or Emotional Reasons for Disagreeing'
2) 'Concession' (Myers, 1998; Stadler, 2006)	=Kotthoff's 'Concession plus Reframing Subsequent Talk'
3) 'Suggestion' (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003)	
4) Baym's (1996) 'Counter-example'	
Strengthening Devices	
1) 'Repetition' (Holtgraves, 1997; Myers, 1998; Scott, 2002; Locher, 2004; Stadler, 2006)	
2) 'Booster' (Locher, 2004; Stadler, 2006)	=Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Intensifiers'
3) 'Personalisation' (Stadler, 2006)	
4) 'Personal *You*' (Rees-Miller, 2000)	
5) 'Judgmental Vocabulary' (Rees-Miller, 2000)	
6) 'Reporting Verb' (Salager-Meyer, 1999)	
7) 'Negation' (Scott, 2002)	
Softening Devices	
1) 'Hedge' (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Myers, 1998; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Stadler, 2006)	=Pearson's (1986) 'Softener' =Greatbatch's (1992) 'Moderation of Prior Assertion' =Kotthoff's (1993) 'Downgrader' and 'Mitigation' =Baym's (1996) 'Downgrades' and 'Qualifications' =Holtgraves'(1997) 'Hedge Opinion'

	=Salager-Meyer's (1999) 'Modal Verb' and 'Probability Adverbs' =Rees-Miller's (2000) 'Downtoner' =Scott's (2002) 'Modals' =Locher's (2004) 'Hedge' and 'Modals'
2) 'Reporting Verb' (Salager-Meyer, 1999)	=Hunston's (1993) 'Attitudinal Verbs'
3) 'Impersonalisation' (Salager-Meyer, 1999; Stadler, 2006)	
4) 'Humour' (Rees-Miller, 2000; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003)	
5) 'Disarmer' (Stadler, 2006)	
6) 'Positive Comment' (Rees-Miller, 2000)	
7) 'Inclusive First Person' (Rees-Miller, 2000)	
8) 'Verbs of Uncertainty' (Rees-Miller, 2000)	
9) 'Partial Positive Assessment' (Kotthoff, 1993)	
10) 'Elaboration' (Baym, 1996)	
11) 'Expression of Distaste with One's Position' (Holtgraves, 1997)	
12) 'Self-deprecation' (Holtgraves, 1997)	

Appendix 4: Ethics approval

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PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title: Disagreeing in Written Linguistics Discourse

Principal Investigator: Hui Ging Sii

My name is Ging Sii. I am a student enrolled for a Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics at King's College London. I am working on a thesis which involves an analysis of discourse strategies eminent theoretical and applied linguists employ to disagree with other theoretical and applied linguists and/or their views in academic articles written in non-quantitative (qualitative or a combination of qualitative and quantitative) framework and published in leading linguistics journals or books between 2000 and 2011.

I would very much appreciate it if you will direct me to one of your recent non-quantitative articles in which you disagree with other theoretical and applied linguists and/or their views and allow me to use your non-quantitative article for discourse data analysis. Upon completion of my analysis, I will ask you to confirm the instances of disagreement I have identified in your article. Then I will conduct a one-hour audio-recorded interview with you at a mutually convenient time and place. I will email you to arrange a convenient time for the interview.

Your participation is voluntary and you may decline the invitation without giving a reason. If you do take part, you may also withdraw, and any information you have provided may be withdrawn, without giving reasons, up to 30th June 2011. Access to all the Participant Consent Forms, data and transcripts will be restricted to myself and my supervisors. At the completion of this study, the data and audiotapes will be stored in a locked cabinet on university premises for six years. If the information you provide in the interview is reported or published, this will be done in a way that does not identify you as its source.

Thank you very much for your time and help in making this study possible. If you have any queries or wish to have more information, please contact me.

Research Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee and the King's College London Education and Management Research Ethics Panel. Research Ethics reference number: 2006/238

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PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

THIS CONSENT FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF SIX YEARS

Title: Disagreeing in Written Linguistics Discourse

Principal Investigator: Hui Ging Sii

I have been given and have understood an explanation of this research project. I have had an opportunity to ask questions and have them answered.

- I understand that one of my recent non-quantitative articles will be collected for data analysis.
- I understand that I will be asked to confirm the disagreement strategies identified in my article.
- I understand that the interview will be audio-recorded.
- I understand that I may withdraw myself or any information traceable to me at any time up to 30th June 2011 without giving a reason.
- I agree to take part in this research.

Name:

Date:

Research Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee and the King's College London Education and Management Research Ethics Panel. Research Ethics reference number: 2006/238

Appendix 5: Interview questions for pilot study and main study

Interview Questions: Pilot Study 1

Agreement

1. Do you usually use more boosters or more hedges to agree in journal articles? Why?
2. Do you usually use hedges to hedge agreement?
3. Using Hyland's (2004) list of boosters & hedges, there are a total ?? boosters and ?? hedges found in your article. ?% boosters and ?% hedges were found in the agreement. There are more hedges than boosters found in the agreement, would you like to comment on that?
4. Why did you hedge the agreement?
5. Do you think that politeness is in operation here?
6. Why did you use a booster here?
7. Why did you use hedges here?
8. Why did you use a hedge and a booster simultaneously here?
9. What is the difference between a hedged agreement and a boosted agreement? Why is [give an agreement instance] boosted and [give an agreement instance] hedged? But why is [give an agreement instance] hedged but [give an agreement instance] boosted? Was the use of hedges and boosters a conscious choice of words?
10. What is the difference between hedged agreement [give an agreement instance] and un-hedged and un-boosted agreement [give an agreement instance]?
11. Are there any other strategies that you use to agree in journal articles? What are their functions?

Disagreement

1. Do you usually use more boosters or more hedges to disagree in journal articles? Why?
2. Do you usually use hedges to hedge disagreement?
3. Using Hyland's (2004) list of boosters & hedges, there are a total ?? boosters and ?? hedges found in your article. ?% boosters and ?% hedges were found in disagreement. There are more hedges than boosters found in the disagreement, would you like to comment on that?
4. Why did you hedge the disagreement?
5. Do you think that politeness is in operation here?
6. Why did you use a booster here?
7. Why did you use hedges here?
8. Are there any other strategies that you use to disagree in journal articles? What are their functions?
9. What kind of construction is this?
10. What kinds of words are these [See examples in the analysis]?
11. As per Hyland's (1998) findings, hedges & boosters were more strongly represented in humanities/social science than in science/engineering papers. Why do you think this is the case?

Interview Questions: Pilot Study 2

1. **Agreement strategies in general.**
   How do you usually agree with other linguists in writing?
   /When you agreed with other linguists, how did you write it?

   Were you taught to write an agreement in this way?

   Is there any difference between the way you agree in speaking and the way you agree in writing?

2. **Agreement strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   You have confirmed that when you are writing about X, you agreed with it. And you wrote about it like this: Y. Now I would like to know, would you say you wanted the reader to know that you agreed? Or were you trying to mask/hide your view?

   If you wanted them to know, which parts of the structure do you think convey that idea?
   /If you wanted to keep your view hidden, why was that?

   What role does a reporting verb, booster, hedge and conjunction (such as this one here X) play in writing an agreement?

3. **Functions of the agreement strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   This 3-part structure (Pre-, Core- and Post-agreement strategies) you used here, why did you do this in this way here?
   /What is the function of this strategy here?
   /What do you see as its function?
   /Why do you use this strategy here?
   /Did you choose those deliberately?

   When you used both booster(s) and hedge(s) in this agreement sequence, were you trying to strengthen or soften the agreement?

   Is this reporting verb X here a strengthening or softening device?

4. **Explanation for any similarity in the agreement strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   This strategy, A, is commonly found in linguistics articles, would you like to comment on that?
   /Why do you think this strategy is commonly found in linguistics articles?

5. **Explanation for any difference in the agreement strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   This strategy, B, is not commonly found in other linguistics articles, would you like to comment on that?
   /What made you think of writing this way?
   /Why do you want to use this strategy? Do you feel this has been an effective strategy for you? Why? Has it brought negative consequences?

6. **Disagreement strategies in general.**
   How do you usually disagree with other linguists in writing?
   /When you disagreed with other linguists, how did you write it?

   Were you taught to write a disagreement in this way?

   Is there any difference between the way you disagree in speaking and the way you disagree in writing?

7. **Disagreeing strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   You have confirmed that when you are writing about X, you disagreed with it. And you wrote about it like this: Y. Now I would like to know, would you say you wanted the reader to know that you disagreed? Or were you trying to mask/hide your view?

   If you wanted them to know, which parts of the structure do you think convey that idea?

   If you wanted to keep your view hidden, why was that?

   What role does a reporting verb, booster, hedge and conjunction (such as this one here X) play in writing a disagreement?

8. **Functions of the disagreeing strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   This 3-part structure (Pre-, Core- and Post-disagreement strategies) you used here, why did you do this in this way here?
   /What is the function of this strategy here?
   /What do you see as its function?
   /Why do you use this strategy here?
   /Did you choose those deliberately?

   When you used both booster(s) and hedge(s) in this disagreement sequence, were you trying to strengthen or soften the disagreement?

   Is this reporting verb X here a strengthening or softening device?

9. **Explanation for any similarity in the disagreeing strategies in the linguistics articles.**
   This strategy, A, is commonly found in linguistics articles, would you like to comment on that?
   /Why do you think this strategy is commonly found in linguistics articles?

10. **Explanation for any difference in the disagreeing strategies in the linguistics articles.**
    This strategy, B, is not commonly found in other linguistics articles, would you like to comment on that?
    /What made you think of writing this way?
    /Why do you want to use this strategy? Do you feel this has been an effective strategy for you? Why? Has it brought negative consequences?

Interview Questions: Pilot Study 3

1) When you disagreed in published writing with other linguists, how do you usually phrase your disagreement?
2) Were you directly taught to write disagreement in this way? Have you referred to models for such written disagreement?

3) What words in [give a disagreement instance] signal disagreement to a reader?
4) Could you explain how the disagreement is signaled contextually /structured in this sequence?
5) Where do you find you express disagreement most in this sequence?
6) What is the function of the strategies here? /What made you think of writing this way?
7) Would you say this sequence is a strong disagreement? partial? neutral? weak? direct? explicit? indirect? implicit?
8) Do any of the following words strengthen or soften the disagreement?

9) Why are you uncertain whether [give a disagreement instance] expresses disagreement?
10) Might some readers think any of the words and/or phrases in the sequence signal disagreement? For example, …
11) What words in the sequence signal disagreement to a reader?
12) Could you explain how the disagreement is signaled contextually /structured in this sequence?
13) Where do you find you express disagreement most in this sequence?
14) What is the function of these strategies here? /What do you see as their function?
15) Would you say this sequence is a strong disagreement? partial? neutral? weak? direct? explicit? indirect? implicit?
16) Do any of the following words strengthen or soften the disagreement?
17) Is this disagreeing sequence structured as "*Yes, but…*"?
18) What did you hope this citation would do? /Could you tell me what this citation is helping you do? /What effect does the citation here have?

19) You have confirmed that [give a disagreement instance] is not a disagreement, is the statement neutral?
20) Might some readers think any of the words and/or phrases in the sequence signal disagreement? For example, …
21) What did you hope this citation would do? /Could you tell me what this citation is helping you do? /What effect does the citation here have?
22) What role does [give examples of words from the TAL article] play in writing the disagreement?

23) Are there any other sections of this article—that we have not talked about—that you think include a strategy you used for disagreeing? If so, which section is that?
24) What words in the sequence signal disagreement to a reader?
25) Could you explain how the disagreement is signaled contextually /structured in this sequence?
26) Where do you find you express disagreement most in this sequence?
27) What is the function of the strategies here? /What made you think of writing this way?

28) Would you say this sequence is a strong disagreement? partial? neutral? weak? direct? explicit? indirect? implicit?

Interview Questions: Main Study

1) When you disagreed in published writing with other named applied linguists, how do you usually phrase your disagreement?
2) Were you directly taught to write disagreement in this way? Have you referred to models for such written disagreement?
3) Could you give me an example of someone whose way of disagreeing you thought is very good?
4) How have the disagreements in this article been received?
   = How has the reaction been to the disagreements in this article so far?
5) Where do you find you express disagreement most in [give a disagreement instance]?
6) Could you explain how the disagreement is structured in [give a disagreement instance]?
   =Could you tell me what this citation is helping you to do? (/What did you hope this citation would do?)
7) What made you think of writing this way?
8) Could you explain how the core-disagreement was structured (/linguistically realised) in [give a disagreement instance]?
   =Was [give a disagreement instance] structured (/linguistically realised) as [give an example]?
9) What made you think of writing this way?
   =What was the function of the strategy [give an example)]?
10) Was [give an example] a genuine or partial agreement?
11) Was [give an example] a direct, bald-on-record disagreement?
12) Why did you not use the direct, bald-or-record version instead?

13) Do you find it difficult to recall the disagreement strategies and their functions?
14) What is the main disagreement in this article?
15) Are there any other sections of this article—that we have not talked about—that you think include a strategy you used for disagreeing? If so, which section is that?

Appendix 6: Length of TAL articles, disagreement instances and moves

Disagreement Instance	Pre-disagreement	Core-disagreement	Post-disagreement	Disagreement Instance	TAL Article
	Words	Words	Words	Words	Words
MS1.1	228	38	152	418	6841
MS1.2	113	43	531	687	
MS1.3	330	98	760	1188	
MS2.1	242	106	83	431	6686
MS2.2	148	42	656	846	
MS3.1	634	173	887	1694	5146
MS3.2	84	15	375	474	
MS3.3	/	48	349	397	
MS3.4	81	44	420	565	
MS3.5	62	59	273	394	
MS4.1	1131	203	3051	4385	5673
MS5.1	40	151	/	191	11146
MS5.2	25	33	280	338	
MS5.3	180	58	363	601	
MS5.4	23	16	53	92	
MS6.1	703	70	348	1121	13569
MS6.2	74	49	59	182	
MS6.3	/	63	70	133	
MS6.4	30	23	69	122	
MS6.5	15	16	23	54	
MS6.6	/	16	131	147	
MS6.7	/	21	27	48	
MS6.8	/	22	397	419	
MS6.9	/	35	9	44	
MS6.10	/	42	5	47	

MS7.1	67	20	584	671	14556
MS7.2	330	70	975	1375	
MS7.3	258	22	/	280	
MS7.4	26	36	38	100	
MS7.5	136	22	21	179	
MS7.6	231	18	268	517	
MS7.7	100	28	78	206	
MS7.8	91	20	/	111	
MS8.1	176	108	577	861	8033
MS8.2	281	177	943	1401	
MS9.1	55	91	195	341	6821
MS9.2	219	92	688	999	
MS9.3	28	25	306	359	
MS9.4	45	21	189	255	
MS10.1	171	80	491	742	7044
MS10.2	85	23	239	347	
MS10.3	188	62	115	365	
MS10.4	48	7	106	161	
MS11.1	110	18	156	284	8570
MS11.2	349	122	325	796	
MS11.3	/	35	92	127	
MS11.4	41	9	123	173	
MS11.5	/	75	58	133	
MS12.1	127	89	/	216	8460
MS12.2	238	69	121	428	
MS12.3	248	10	1396	1654	
MS12.4	186	208	912	1306	
MS13.1	35	71	445	551	10361

MS13.2	38	234	233	505	
MS13.3	1736	271	899	2906	
MS13.4	129	40	715	884	
MS13.5	63	43	756	862	
MS13.6	167	130	337	634	
MS14.1	/	63	/	63	20317
MS14.2	107	138	594	839	
MS14.3	28	26	/	54	
MS14.4	93	54	/	147	
MS14.5	749	138	1626	2513	
MS15.1	431	168	557	1156	7770
MS15.2	130	16	517	663	
MS15.3	289	28	/	317	
MS16.1	521	41	765	1327	8445
MS16.2	541	101	1731	2373	
MS16.3	106	14	/	120	